THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For APRIL, 1800.

ART. I. *A Missionary Voyage to the Southern Pacific Ocean*, performed in the Years 1796, 1797, 1798, in the Ship Duff, commanded by Captain James Wilson. Compiled from Journals of the Officers and Missionaries; and illustrated with Maps, Charts, and Views, drawn by Mr. William Wilson, and engraved by the most eminent artists. With a Preliminary Discourse on the Geography and History of the South Sea Islands; and an Appendix, including Details never before published, of the Natural and Civil State of Otaheite. By a Committee appointed for the Purpose, by the Directors of the Missionary Society. Published for the Benefit of the Society. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Chapman. 1799.

THE voyage to the Pacific Ocean, of which we are now to give an account, differs so much from any that have preceded it during the present reign, that it claims a distinct rank to itself. While those which were not of a public nature have been undertaken for commercial advantage alone,—in such as were fitted out under the auspices of his Majesty, discovery has been either wholly or in part the object; excepting those which were performed in order to transplant the bread-fruit tree to the West Indies. Perhaps the latter may class with the present voyage; as being equally unconnected with the advancement of science, and equally designed for ameliorating the condition of our fellow-creatures: with this singular difference, indeed, that the one was intended to confer *spiritual* and the others *temporal* benefits; the purpose of this expedition being to impart the blessings of Christianity to unenlightened savages.

The preliminary discourse contains a geographical and historical account of Otaheite, of the Society Islands, of the Friendly Islands, of Navigator's Islands, of the Marquesas, and of some others of less note; in which is collected into one 'distinct and comprehensive view, the information that was scattered through numerous printed volumes, or was attainable by means of manuscript and verbal communications.'—As 'the want of a proper guide for the pronunciation of names used by the

South Sea islanders, and the diversity of modes in which they have been spelled by writers and compilers of voyages, have long been subjects of complaint,' some rules of pronunciation are given, and recommended to the reader's attention. We observe some names remarkably varied from the manner in which they appear in former accounts, particularly that of *Tupia*, who left Otaheite to accompany Captain Cook to Europe, but who died at Batavia in 1770; which is here changed to Toopāea.—In the account of Otaheite, some particulars concerning the mutineers of the Bounty are related; which, we believe, have not before been published.

Prefixed to the narrative, is a copy of the letter of instructions from the Directors of the Society to Captain Wilson; in which he was ordered to join the East India convoy at Spithead, and to keep company with them as far as their course lay together:—afterward, to call at the Brazils, and thence to attempt the passage round Cape Horn: but, if the winds should prove unfavourable, to bear away for the Cape of Good Hope. When arrived in the Pacific Ocean, it was recommended to attend, as much as circumstances would admit, to a resolution which passed at a general meeting of the Missionary Society; 'that a mission be undertaken to Otaheite, the Friendly Islands, the Marquesas, the Sandwich and the Pelew Islands, in a ship belonging to the Society, to be commanded by Captain Wilson, as far as may be practicable and expedient.' As many changes might have taken place in the state of the islands since the last accounts, much was left to Captain Wilson's discretion: but with directions to consult and hold frequent communication with the Committee of the Missionaries, concerning such things as related to the plans of settlement. The first and principal effort was to be made at Otaheite; which place, if the natives appeared well disposed to receive them, was to have a decided preference in the number of Missionaries to be left. A caution was given not to reserve many for the places which they last designed to visit, lest the natives there should be disinclined to their landing; in which case there would be a waste of means, as probably no alternative would remain but that of bringing them back to their native land. Capt. Wilson was to endeavour to be at Canton, on his return, not later than January 1798.

The ship being ready, on the 10th of August 1796, the Missionaries went on board, being thirty in number, six of whom were accompanied by their wives; three children likewise were of the party. Of the Missionaries, four were ordained ministers; the rest (the surgeon excepted) were mostly manufacturers, or working tradesmen. The ship's company

consisted of twenty-two persons, including the captain. In the choice of seamen, they had been select: one half of the number were communicants, and all of them zealous. The Missionary flag, which bore three doves argent with olive branches in their bills, on a purple field, was hoisted at the mizen-top-gallant-mast-head as they sailed down the river.—The spirit which animated the brethren in this undertaking will be best shewn by a short extract or two from their journals, all of which speak the same language. One says, "When taking a prospective view of the great work before us, my soul was constrained to cry out, 'Who is sufficient for these things?' But I was enabled to derive comfort and encouragement from the confidence that He who holdeth the winds in his fist, and the waters in the hollow of his hand, can preserve from every evil."—Another writes, "I felt deeply when leaving my native country, and dear friends whom I loved as my life; but loving the giver of life, I trust, more than all, I went with tears of joy."

Before they reached Spithead, the East India fleet had sailed; and it was therefore determined to wait for the sailing of the Adamant man of war, which was shortly to go with a convoy for Lisbon and Gibraltar. While they remained at this anchorage, one of the children died, and one of the married Missionaries and his wife quitted the ship.

On September the 24th the whole convoy sailed; and on the 30th their ship, the Duff, parted company, and proceeded to the Southward. They stopped at St. Jago, where they completed their water, and with difficulty procured some other refreshments. The most remarkable occurrence at this place is related in the following paragraph:

'Though our stay was very short, our brethren on shore were not inattentive to their first object; we shall just mention, in the simplicity of the language of the reporter, what passed on one occasion: "I was meditating on the goodness of God to me an unworthy creature, and that 'whosoever is afraid or ashamed of his word before men, of him will the Son of Man be ashamed,' when I met a native black man, who invited me to his house. My mind was greatly impressed with the ignorance and superstition I saw; so I went with him, and found him very friendly: he spoke the English language sufficiently to be understood; I enquired what religion he was of; he told me he was a Roman Catholic. After speaking a little of their mode and manner of worship, I told him freely I feared he was wrong; that God could not be worshipped through the medium of images, pointing out the several passages of God's word which forbad such worship; and, blessed be God, he appeared very much to give way to what I said to him; and I hope the Lord will convince him by his Spirit. Before parting from him, I desired him to read over all the

passages I had pointed out to him, for he had an old Bible, and could read a little: I begged him to compare the word of God with the sentiments he had been taught, and to pray to God without images set before him, as they are an abomination to the Lord; and there can be but one true way of worshipping him, through Jesus Christ, and through him alone.' Thus, after a few more words, we parted, and I hope the labour will not be in vain in the Lord."

This individual conversion (if such it proved) of a poor creature living under a rigid Roman Catholic government, and educated in that religion, appears to be more an act of zeal than of consideration. If the convert practised what he was newly taught, he could scarcely escape being persecuted as a heretic. The greater probability is, however, that so short an instruction would not make him aspire to the character of a martyr: but there is danger that his faith might be shaken in a religion which he may still think it expedient to profess; and thus the practice of his former mode of worship, being continued with an altered faith, will become criminal,—though, while he believed in its truth, it was meritorious.

At Rio Janeiro, nothing remarkable occurred. They left that place Nov. 20, and steered along the coast to the Southward. On the 3d of December, however, the wind blowing strong from the South-west, it was determined not to attempt the passage round Cape Horn, and accordingly they bore away to the Eastward. In twelve weeks, reckoning from that time, *i. e.* on February 25th, 1797, they were in sight of the island Toobouai, in the Pacific Ocean; and on the 5th of March, the ship anchored at Otaheite.

During this passage, at a general consultation held by the Missionaries to consider on the propriety of their separating, eighteen declared their preference for Otaheite; in which number were included all the married men. Ten were for Tongataboo. Mr. J. Harris singly declared for the Marquesas: but afterward, by his persuasions, William Crook, a young man aged 21, agreed to accompany him.—According to this disposition, Captain Wilson regulated his subsequent proceedings.

Before they came to their anchoring place at Otaheite, the natives flocked about the ship in great numbers. It was Sunday; and they were astonished at the indifference shewn about the hogs, fowls, and fruit, which they had brought in abundance. The Missionaries endeavoured to make them comprehend that this was the day of the *Eatooa*, (the Divinity,) and that therefore they could not trade:—'But their women repulsed, occasioned greater wonder.' Divine service was performed on the quarter-deck. 'During sermon and prayer, the

natives were quiet and thoughtful; but when the singing struck up, they seemed charmed, and filled with amazement; sometimes they would talk and laugh, but a nod of the head brought them to order.'

Two Swedes, who had been part of the crew of the Matilda, a vessel which had been cast away in these seas in 1792, came off to the ship; and, as they could both speak English, they were serviceable as interpreters. At this time, Otoo, the king, and Pomarre, his father, had obtained the sovereignty over the whole island of Otaheite, and likewise over the island of Eimeo.—The first visitor of consequence who came to the ship was the High Priest, an aged man, named Manne-Manne; who requested the Captain to become his *Tayo*, or friend, and they in consequence exchanged names. On his next visit, he 'brought with him five of his wives, not one of which exceeded fifteen years old, and desired he might sleep in the cabin; and, according to the custom of the country, very cordially desired Captain Wilson, his Tayo, to take his choice, and could hardly persuade himself that he was serious in declining the offer.' This occasioned a long conversation about polygamy; and the arguments advanced by the Captain were 'highly approved by the ladies.'

On the 7th, some of the Missionaries and the Captain waited on the young King. 'The Captain now informed the King, that our only inducement for leaving Pretane (Britain) to come and visit them, was to do them good, by instructing them in the best and most useful things; and for this end, some good men of our number intended to settle among them; requiring on their part the free gift of a piece of land, sufficiently stocked with bread fruit and cocoa-nut trees,—that they (the Missionaries) would not on any account intermeddle in their wars;—if he consented, they would stay on the island; if not, they would go elsewhere.' It appeared doubtful whether Otoo understood this harangue; though he signified that a large house, which stood near Point Venus, should be their own, and that they might take what land they pleased.

The following paragraph will afford our readers some idea of majesty in Otaheite:

'After dinner, Otoo and his wife came off, each in a small canoe, with one man paddling: they went several times round the ship, the queen frequently baling her canoe with a cocoa-nut shell. They would not venture on board, because wheresoever they come is deemed sacred, none daring to enter there afterwards except their proper domestics. He appears tall and well made, about seventeen; his queen handsome, and finely proportioned, about the same age, and always carried about, on shore, on men's shoulders. The king appears thoughtful, speaks

little, but surveys things with attention. The Missionaries supposed something majestic in his appearance, but the Captain thought him of little capacity.—Knowing there were women and children on board, they expressed a wish to see them; and when they walked to the ship's side to shew themselves, they set up a cry of admiration and wonder.'

At a consultation of the Committee of the Missionaries, it was resolved immediately to enter into possession of the house offered. When the women and children were landed, 'vast numbers of the natives crouded to the beach to gratify their curiosity, all behaving with great respect and very peaceable.' They were delighted with the two children; and sent often for them and the women to shew themselves at the door. On the following Sunday, an address was made to the natives by the Rev. Mr. Jefferson, through the medium of one of the Swedes. As soon as the first sentence was interpreted, 'finding the discourse was directed to them, they placed themselves in attentive postures. When they understood a little of what was said, they put very pertinent questions; among others, they asked whether the message of the British God was to the *Toutous* (the lowest class of inhabitants) as well as to the king and chiefs?' Otoo was present, but did not seem much edified. On the arrival of Pomarre, the king's father, the promises of land and of protection were repeated: yet so early as the 14th of March, apprehensions were entertained by the Missionaries, for both their persons and property. Reports had reached them of a design formed by the natives to rush upon them, and take every thing away. The Missionaries on shore strongly urged the necessity of the whole body remaining at Otaheite: but 'the brethren on board having debated the subject, and concluding the above-mentioned fears groundless, and by no means cause sufficient for them to confine the whole effort of the Society to one island, and thereby disappoint the hopes of many of its valuable members at home; they returned their ultimate answer in the negative.'

A day being appointed by Pomarre for ceding in form the district of Matavai to the English, the Captain landed upon Point Venus, and was there received by the Chief, &c.—Most of the Brethren were present at this ceremony, which was simply a speech made by the old priest in presence of the chiefs. One of the Swedes interpreted.—All that we find to the purpose in the speech, as translated in the narrative, is, "that they (the Missionaries) might take what houses, trees, fruit, hogs, &c. they thought proper."—The priest's manner of delivering this speech is described as being so ludicrous, as to have been a subject of mirth and ridicule to the natives who were

were present.—It appears to us that to regard this as a '*formal surrender of the district of Matavai*' is a construction beyond what was intended by the Otaheitean chiefs. The term '*to the English*,' used in the narrative, implies a meaning of too great extent. What was given was specifically to the Missionaries, and seems rather a licence for them to remain in the district, and to occupy as much land as was necessary for their subsistence, than making them proprietors. We think too well of the Missionary Society, to entertain apprehensions that any use of this transaction contrary to the wishes of the natives would be made by *them*: but the manner in which it is related makes us reflect on the slender pretexts on which those people whom we call uncivilized have been deprived of their country, and even of their own liberty and lives, by European nations; and we cannot but deprecate that words thus unthinkingly uttered, by an ignorant people, should hereafter be produced as evidence against them, in support of claims to dispossess them of their territory.

Mr. Jefferson, in a conversation with some of the chiefs, spoke concerning the education of their children. An impression seems to have been made on Pomarre: but Otoo coolly observed that 'he did not want to learn English.'

The Brethren intended for the Friendly Islands chose Mr. Seth Kelso to be their pastor, and he was ordained previously to their departure; as was also Mr. John Harris, whose destination was to the Marquesas. The Communion closed the solemnity, the bread-fruit of Otaheite being used on that occasion. 'Manne-Manne was present during the service, and very attentive, particularly during the administration of the Lord's Supper: he placed himself in the circle with the Brethren, and when they passed him he shifted his situation further on, in hopes of partaking with them.'

As a short trial of absence, the ship sailed to Eimeo, where she staid a few days; and on their return to Matavai bay, the voyagers had the pleasure of hearing that apprehensions of mischief from the natives were no longer entertained by the Missionaries. Nothing, they said, could have exceeded the kindness and attention of the natives. 'Every day they attended our worship, and heard such addresses as we were enabled to make to them through an interpreter.'

On the 26th of March the Duff sailed from Otaheite towards the Friendly Islands; and one of the Swedes, accompanied by a young Otaheite woman, 'with whom he had for some time lived as his wife,' and two others of the islanders, went in the ship.

On the 10th of April they arrived at Tongataboo. Neither the Swede nor the Otaheiteans could make themselves understood: but, soon after the ship anchored, two British seamen, who had quitted a vessel employed in the fur trade, and had been on the island during thirteen months, came on board. By these men, the people of the Duff were informed that the principal chief or king of Tongataboo was an elderly person, named Tibo Moomooe. On the next day, they received a present, and shortly afterward a visit from this prince: but his infirm state of health rendered his entrance into the ship a difficult task. When made acquainted with the desire of the Missionaries to remain, he gave the most favourable encouragement, promising them land, and a house near his own; which, if they did not approve of its situation, should 'be removed to any spot they preferred.' Four of the Missionaries, with Mr. W. Wilson, the principal writer of the journal, went to examine the place; which was inclosed by a fence, and contained three or four acres. Besides the large house intended for the Missionaries, there was another which was 'sacred to the God of Pretane,' (Britain,) in which the aged king, when indisposed, sometimes slept in hopes of a cure. This might be considered as a prepossession favourable to the purpose of the mission.—At a consultation, objections were made to this place, on account of its not being in the most frequented part of the island; as also on the consideration of the king's age, and bad state of health; and it was determined to send to his son Feenou Toogahowe, to propose to reside under his protection. This chief, the most extraordinary character that they found in the island, was nephew to the Feenou who was the friend of Captain Cook. Toogahowe, the Missionaries were informed, was the most powerful chief in the island; a great warrior, and a terror to the chiefs not only of Tongataboo, but of the adjacent islands. 'He is a stout man, and may be about 40 years of age; is of a sullen, morose countenance; speaks very little, but, when angry, bellows forth with a voice like the roaring of a lion.'—To the application of the Missionaries, Toogahowe returned a favourable answer, and sent a double canoe to convey them and their effects to the part of the island at which he resided. On the two following days, satisfactory accounts were received from the Missionaries; and on the 14th of April, the ship sailed for the Marquesas.

In this passage, Captain Wilson stood nearly to the 40th degree of South latitude, and kept to the Southward of the trade wind, till the ship was sufficiently to the Eastward of the Marquesas;

Marquesas; after which, the course steered was to the North. In their route, some small islands were discovered.—On the 4th of June, they saw the Marquesas; and in the evening of the next day, they anchored at the island called by European navigators Santa Christina, but by the natives, Ohitahoo.

The chief of this island was not less willing to receive European settlers, than were those at the other islands. Messrs. Harris and Crook went on shore with the chief to view the proffered accommodations. On their return, Mr. Crook declared himself satisfied with his behaviour, with the house assigned to them, with the place, and with the people; and he concluded by saying that, 'though there was not the same plenty here as at the other islands, he had no objections to stay, as he never before nor since his engagement had comforts in view;'—'notwithstanding the present state of the island, (he said) appearances gave him reason to think that they had their plentiful seasons here as well as at the other islands. Mr. Harris delivered his sentiments with hesitation, and his opinions were quite contrary to those of Mr. Crook; he disapproved every thing; judged the scene before him a solemn one; and, in short, seemed entirely to have lost his firmness and ardour. However, as the kind reception by the chief and his people had obviated every direct objection to them, it was agreed to go on shore on the next day, and to make a trial.'—On the 7th Mr. Crook landed, with his effects: but Mr. Harris could not muster up resolution enough to land till the 14th.

In the opinion of the writer, the women at the Marquesas were more beautiful than those either of the Friendly or of the Society Islands. They appeared to be kept by the men in a state of great subjection. In the day time, they were admitted into the ship; and the narrator observes that 'it was not a little affecting to see our own seamen repairing the rigging, attended by a groupe of the most beautiful females, who were employed to pass the ball or carry the tar-bucket, &c.; and this they did with the greatest assiduity, often besmearing themselves with the tar in the execution of their office. No ship's company, without great restraints from God's grace, could ever have resisted such temptations; and some would have probably offended, if they had not been overawed by the jealousy of the officers, and by the good conduct of their messmates.'

Early one morning, when the ship was preparing to sail, one of the natives brought a message from Mr. Harris, requiring immediate assistance. A boat was sent, and found him on the beach in great distress. When he came on board, he related that Tenae (the chief of the island) wanted to treat them with

with an excursion to another valley, to which Mr. Crook readily agreed, but that he (Mr. Harris) would not consent. The chief seeing this, and desirous of obliging him, not considering any favour too great, left him his wife, to be treated as if she were his own, till the chief came back again. Mr. Harris told him that he did not want the woman; however, she looked up to him as her husband, and, finding herself treated with total neglect, became doubtful of his sex. She therefore acquainted some of the other females with her suspicion; who accordingly came in the night, when he slept, and satisfied themselves on that point, but not in such a peaceable way but that they awoke him. Discovering so many strangers, he was greatly terrified; and perceiving what they had been doing, he was determined 'to leave a place where the people were so abandoned and given up to wickedness:' a cause, the writer observes, which should have excited a contrary resolution. Thus Mr. Harris, who first proposed to settle at the Marquesas, and who for that purpose had been ordained at Otaheite, forsook the partner whom he had persuaded to accompany him. Mr. Crook continued unshaken, and behaved with manly propriety. 'He is a young man of twenty-two, remarkably serious and steady, always employed in the improvement of his mind, and applied with great diligence to the attainment of the language. He also possesses a very good genius, and I have no doubt will contrive many things to benefit the poor creatures he lives with.'—'Tenae had adopted him as his son, an act they ever after hold as sacred, esteeming him in the same light as his other children.'

As the Captain and officers were very little on shore, while the ship remained at this island, the writer of the narrative sent 'a number of queries to Mr. Crook.' His answers to them have a place in the volume. They relate to the religion, customs, &c. of the islanders. 'Their religious ceremonies resemble those of the Society Islands. They have a *morai* in each district.—They have a multitude of deities.—They only offer hogs in sacrifice, and never men.'—'There is no regular government, established law, or punishments; but custom is the general rule.' Nevertheless he says, 'the chief Tenae presides over four districts, but seems invested with less authority than the Otaheitean chiefs.' What state of society shall this be called?

Among their customs, Mr. Crook says, 'I learn the son must not touch the clothes of the father; and must walk before him on the road; and the father must not touch any thing nor eat victuals which have passed over the head of the son.—Their diseases are few; I have indeed hardly observed the appearance of

of any; and they are as yet happily free from that fatal malady which has made such ravages in the Society Islands.'

The small time which had elapsed, between the landing of Mr. Crook and his drawing up the foregoing remarks, scarcely could have sufficed to enable him with certainty to determine on the different subjects which he has noticed. If the truth of his last remark shall be confirmed by longer observation, it may be regarded as conclusive evidence, that to the visits of Europeans is to be attributed the unfortunate introduction of the above mentioned disease among the islands of the Pacific Ocean.

On the 27th of June, the ship sailed from Ohitahoo, or Santa Christina. Captain Wilson steered to the North-west, to determine the situation of Trevennen's and Sir Henry Martin's islands, with respect to Ohitahoo; which having done, he made sail for Otaheite. On the 6th of July, they arrived. The brethren were all in good health, and were on the most friendly terms with the natives, 'who had never failed a day to supply them abundantly with all kinds of provisions. Respecting the purposes of the mission, it was a point of which they could not as yet say any thing more than that appearances were encouraging.'—Their own journals relate the proceedings of the Missionaries during the absence of the ship. Shortly after her departure, they began to erect a blacksmith's shop. The journal of William Puckey says:

'Wanted plank for the blacksmith's shop; told the king. He said, "Harry mīe," *come along*. I went with him and six men; he carried me up the valley; and searching every house, took what he liked: many of the people stoutly resisted, but his men would not leave a plank. I told the king, with whom we exercise the most entire familiarity, that he was a thief. "No," said he, "it is the custom of Otaheite." The king was carried on men's shoulders, till we arrived at a territory of his own; when alighting, he took a majestic stride, and stalking on, "Puckey," says he, "is this as King George walks?" I told him "Yes." Having gone about three miles, I desired to return. He then gave me a hog, and made the people from whom he had taken the plank, carry it down to our house.'—'The shop being finished, and Brother Hodges, with Hassel, at work, Pomarre came, supremely delighted with the bellows and forge, and catching the blacksmith in his arms, all dirty as he was, joined noses with him, and expressed his high satisfaction.'

The presents made to the brethren who worked at the forge were what, in that country, may be called magnificent. At one time, Pomarre sent them two canoes, two large hogs, eight couple of fowls, and some fish, with a quantity of Otaheite cloth. Such encouragement calls to our mind the well-known story of the basket-maker.

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The following paragraph, which is found in the journal of the Missionaries, seems dictated by a more than ordinary degree of credulity:

'A fact was reported to us, which, if true, was shocking. In one of Captain Cook's visits, he left a great monkey, who was made a chief at Attahoozoo; he had a wife, and thirty servants, and abundance of every thing:—One day the woman seeing him catch the flies and eat them, which they abominate, she ran away into the mountains; the monkey and his toutous pursued, but being met by Temarre who was jealous of his authority, he knocked him down with a club, and killed him.'

The Missionaries had begun to preach to the natives in their own language, and to teach some of them the use of letters. 'The king and queen brought a large present of cocoa-nuts to Brother Cover and his wife, desiring to become their adopted children, and promising to regard them as their father and mother.' One Sunday, when many of the principal natives were present, a sermon was preached from "*Thou shalt not kill.*" After the sermon, they had a more particular conversation with Iddeah, the king's mother, who was then pregnant by a toutou, who was of the Arreoie Society. 'Pomarre had taken another wife, and she one of her servants; but they lived in the same state of friendship, and with no loss of dignity.' The Missionaries endeavoured to convince her of the heinousness of killing children, in a mother especially. They offered to receive the child in order that it should be no trouble to her, and that our women would take care of it. They promised her presents, and represented to her that her example would have the happiest effect on the nation: but they could obtain no other answer than that 'the child was base born; had it been Pomarre's, it would have lived; but that now they were Arreoies.'—This passed on the 9th of April. On the 12th, the journal says, 'This day Iddeah appeared again in public, and Manne-Manne communicated to us the afflictive intelligence that she had murdered her new-born babe. It was therefore resolved by the brethren, that no more presents should be received from Iddeah; and that our marked disapprobation of her conduct should be shewn whenever she came to our house.' With this behaviour she was highly offended. 'She is a bold daring spirit, and much more warlike than her husband Pomarre. It may be worth a remark, that Iddeah had not been absent from our house two days before she appeared as if nothing ailed her: with so little inconvenience do the most painful operations of nature affect those of that happy climate.' In the destruction of children, contrary to the practice of Pharaoh with the Israelites, a greater number of females than males fall a sacrifice.

The

The people of Otaheite seem ambitious of displaying their knowlege of the English language; using the few words which they have picked up, right or wrong. The Missionaries, among other instances, have given the following: 'A native coming into our apartments, a brother took occasion to speak to him about God. He owned the Otaheitan gods were *enow*, bad, for they ate men, hogs, bread-fruit, &c. which the Pretane God did not, and was "a good fellow."—The discourses addressed to the natives appear to have been always heard with respect, and sometimes with attention; though Manne-Manne, the old priest, once complained that "they gave them plenty of the word of God, but not of many other things."

Here closes our account from the journals kept at Otaheite during the ship's absence at the Marquesas. The conduct and manners of the Missionaries appear to have been mild and exemplary; and, at this time, they were regarded by the natives with great good-will and respect. Wherever they went, they found the most cordial welcome. The short time which they had passed on the island was mostly occupied in endeavouring to learn the language; and it therefore was not to be expected, that they could have made much progress in communicating to the natives the benefits of religious instruction. Some of the chiefs were apparently eager to learn: but it must be by slow degrees that any lasting effect can be produced on a people whose characters are so much less fitted to retain than to receive impressions.

We shall now permit our readers to take breath; and in our next Number we shall present them with an account of the remaining part of the voyage.

[*To be continued.*] Capt. B...y.

ART. II. *Iter Britanniarum;* or that Part of the Itinerary of Antoninus which relates to Britain, with a new Comment. By the Rev. Thomas Reynolds, A. M. Rector of Bowden Parva, Northamptonshire. 4to. pp. 500. 18s. Boards. Cadell, jun. and Davies. 1799.

THE Itinerary of Antoninus, our readers will recollect, is a work of undoubted Roman antiquity, consisting of a catalogue of the names of a great number of towns in the various and distant provinces of the Roman empire. Of the situation of these towns it has in some degree preserved a knowlege, by giving their distances from each other as they are connected in certain lines, each describing an *iter* or journey.

When a love for the study of antiquity rekindled with the revival of letters in Europe, it is not surprizing that such a work as

as this should have become an object of general attention; and that much pains should have been taken to elucidate and explain its valuable contents, which the lapse of centuries, and an universal change of names and circumstances, had rendered extremely obscure. Accordingly, several eminent and ingenious men early applied themselves to the task. Among those who wrote on that part of it which relates to Britain, Talbot, a canon of Norwich under Henry VIII., was the first: but he went only to the end of the fifth *Iter*, though the work contains fifteen. After Talbot, came Burton, as a professed commentator on the *Iter Britanniarum*; and Burton was followed by Dr. Gale, to whom the antiquarian world has considerable obligations for the re-publication of several old authors relating to the antient state of this island:—he died in 1702, and left his comment on the *Iter* unfinished. The last of those who have attempted a general explanation of the Antonine *Iter*, as it relates to Britain, was Horsley; who, in his *Britannia Romana*, has given an ingenious but short essay on this subject. His work was published in 1732; and as, from its nature, it must have been a considerable time in preparation, it may be supposed that it was undertaken at no great distance from the commencement of the eighteenth century.

These authors professedly wrote on the *Iter* as their principal subject. A variety of others, men of high character in the literary and antiquarian world, have treated it incidentally, and contributed in a great degree to rescue it from interpolations, and clear it from difficulty. Among these latter, we find the names of Leland, Harrison, Camden, Gibson, Baxter, Stukely, and Whitaker.

A work so involved in obscurity, and containing neither historical remarks nor observations of any kind, which might serve as a clue to the learning or sagacity of the reader, even the labours of all these commentators have not succeeded in rendering fully understood; though they have certainly removed many of the difficulties with which it had been encumbered. In the course of the century, however, which has now nearly elapsed since any author wrote expressly on this subject, many helps have been attained towards a more perfect elucidation. Within that period, so many Roman antiquities have been found in different parts of the island, our maps have been so much improved, and the distances of towns have been so accurately ascertained, that, in the opinion of Mr. Reynolds, if a full explanation of it cannot be had, at least a much better account of it may now be very justly deemed practicable, than it could have been in the power of any former writer to furnish, though possessed of the utmost ability. Under this impression,

Mr. R.

Mr. R. engaged in the undertaking; which, as he tells us in his preface, 'proceeds on the sound and excellent foundation which the former commentators had laid, and will not be found to differ from them but where they seem not to have had it in their power to reach the truth.'

In executing this design, Mr. R. extracts, from all the authors who have either expressly or incidentally written on the *Iter*, a view of that work, regular and consistent in all its parts; and this he does by paying an exact and particular attention to the distances of the towns, according to the numbers laid down for the designation of them. By all the former commentators, it was deemed enough to say, in general terms, that the distances agreed with the numbers: but Mr. R. does not content himself with barely declaring that the distances and numbers correspond:—he produces the best evidence that can be obtained for the truth of that assertion. To ascertain those distances, he makes use of Ogilby's Survey of the direct and principal Cross Roads in England and Wales—Paterson's Itinerary—his Description of Roads—his Travelling Dictionary—and above all, of Carey's excellent Maps, reduced from the actual survey of most of the counties in England.

The argument founded on the real distance of a town, corresponding with that which is attributed to it in the Itinerary, is not the only one on which Mr. R. generally rests. He adds to it the many other proofs which are drawn from the Roman antiquities discovered at the respective places, and of which he gives short accounts from Camden, Stukely, Horsley, &c. It is a curious fact that the accidental purchase of Carey's Maps, in which the Roman roads are marked, led Mr. R. step by step, to those inquiries which terminated in the composition of the laborious work now offered to the public.

Prefixed to the work, is an extensive and elaborate introduction, in which Mr. Reynolds displays considerable learning in antiquities, and in antient geography. We have also a Map of antient Britain, exceedingly well executed; and constructed, by the assistance of the Geography of Cellarius, for the express purpose of elucidating the *Iter*.—In an appendix, is given an abridged view of the *whole* Itinerary, comprehending all the provinces of the Roman empire, Ptolemy's Geography of Britain, an extract from the *Notitia*, giving the names of towns at that time in Britain (both of these from Horsley), a copy of the Itinerary of Richard of Cirencester, and an alphabetical list of a great number of towns at which Roman curiosities have been found.

This production is candidly acknowleged by Mr. R. to be the result of *closet* labour, as he had not an opportunity of personally

personally visiting the towns of which he treats. He professes to have felt 'the weight of this objection to his work, which he would have been glad to remove, had his situation and circumstances in life permitted the attempt:' but he does not admit it to be fatal, since, he says, 'it is one thing to find Roman stations, and another to combine such discoveries for the illustration of the Itinerary:—the one is the work of labour and expensive inquiry on the spot; the latter must be the work of the closet.'

Without conceding to Mr. R. that this is a *complete* answer to the objection of which he himself felt the force, we yet think that for the industry, learning, and ingenuity of his work, however compiled, the public (and particularly the lovers of antiquity) owe him thanks.

Our readers in general, however, would not be obliged to us for entering minutely into the discussions which the volume contains; and we must therefore rest satisfied with having so far discharged our duty in reporting its nature and contents. Wall.

ART. III. *The Annual Anthology.* Vol. I. Crown 8vo. pp. 300. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1799.

A GREAT and important change has been effected in taste by the multiplication of books, and by a diffusion of the passion for reading. It should seem that the maxim of Horace, that middling Poetry is intolerable, must now be dismissed from the canons of criticism; since the majority of readers, at present, prefer that species of verse which he proscribed. In his day, the works of celebrated men were treasures of great price, which could only be possessed by the noble and opulent: but the art of printing has rendered the beauties of poetry accessible to persons of all degrees of information, and has increased the number of bad judges still more than that of bad writers. Compilations like the present are therefore not to be disregarded, though they contain no poem of superior excellence. While they afford respectable amusement for vacant hours, they may serve the better purpose of ushering some poet of real genius to public notice. Several writers of the last age were first introduced by similar miscellanies, to that distinction which they afterward obtained. Publications of this nature are also useful as preserving occasional pieces which, from the peculiar happiness of their composition, are calculated to outlive the temporary interest that produced them: but the necessity of furnishing a certain quantity of matter, in a determined period, unavoidably renders them too often the receptacles of mediocrity.

Many

Many of the verses in this volume are anonymous. To others, we observe the names of well-known authors affixed: Messrs. Southey, Dyer, Lloyd, Lamb, Cottle, Davy, and Dr. Beddoes, have given their signatures; and Mrs. Opie has acknowleged a few verses.

In attempting to characterize the contents of the volume, we must own that our sagacity has been strangely put to the test, to distinguish the ironical from the serious parts. Some of the poems are evidently written to satirize the prevailing faults of modern bards: but others are placed by their side, which are so serious and yet so similar in structure, that we feel a perplexity like that of the manager who asked an author, after having read his play, "Pray, Sir, is this your tragedy, or your comedy?"—With this difficulty in our way, for which we entreat the reader's consideration, we shall proceed to a more particular description of some of this motley assemblage.

A Topographical Ode. This is an unsuccessful attempt to execute an ode without rhime, in our language. It was an experiment which Milton only tried once; and if it did not succeed with him, who bestowed all the graces and all the dignity on our language of which it is susceptible, it may be regarded as hopeless. Collins indeed repeated the trial, but without furnishing encouragement to future imitators. We cannot compliment the writer of the ode before us, so far as to say that he has even attained the rank of Collins, whom we suppose he has taken for his model. The only characteristic of that poet, which he has appropriated, is his obscurity. He considers what he should do if he were a cloud (a figure extremely well adapted to his verses); and thus, among other cloudy stanzas, he sings;

'I'll weave the crimson lining of the tent,
Where jealous Evening, from the musing eye
Pavilions secretly
His couch of dumb repose.'

When he becomes a meteor, the poetry grows still darker:

'Were I a flame-shaft of the northern dawn
On Skiddaw's height I'd take my glittering stand,
And wreathe with flickering fire
His murky brow sublime,

'While darkness still with her broad mantle wraps
The giant-limbs of his majestic form,
And Silence clasps his foot
Save where hoarse torrents rush.

'Thence would I stretch my sword cherubic wide
O'er all thy kindling waters, and expand
A ruby sea of fire
Between thy mountains dun.

'Then quench the fervent blushes on thy cheek,
And chace the whitening splendor far away
To sparkle thro' the air
In many a fleecy flake.'

On the epithet *flickering*, in the first stanza, we must remark that it is not in good usage; it is introduced by Shakspeare in a burlesque passage, (Lear, act 2. sc. 2.) and our very reverence for that poet should prevent us from preferring words which he seems to have stigmatized. The questionable phrase of *delighted spirit* is injudiciously used in a subsequent stanza.—So careless or so inaccurate has the writer been, that he has employed a very ludicrous phrase in the last stanza but two;

'And from the marble grottoes of thy bed,
Shall oft emerge the ladies of the Lake,
To doff upon thy strand
The loose cerulean woof.'

We thought that the designation of 'Ladies of the Lake' had been known to all readers of Don Quixote; and we should be sorry to imagine that they have the assurance to forsake the Strand, and to bathe in the view of moralists and poets, in the pure streams which our bard intended to celebrate: especially as he exhibits the aforesaid ladies in blue and buff.

Bishop Bruno. A very indifferent resemblance of halfpenny ballads, on a subject which would have admitted some ghostly decoration.

The Holly Tree: by Robert Southey. This is an imitation of some of our older poets, and contains many of their faults. The reader shall judge:

'O Reader! hast thou ever stood to see
The Holly Tree?
The eye that contemplates it well perceives
Its glossy leaves
Ordered by an intelligence so wise
As might confound the Atheist's sophistries.

'Below, a circling fence, its leaves are seen
Wrinkled and keen,
No grazing cattle thro' their prickly round
Can reach to wound,
But as they grow where nothing is to fear,
Smooth and unarm'd the pointless leaves appear.

'I love to view these things with curious eyes
And moralize;
And in the wisdom of the Holly Tree
Can emblems see
Wherewith perchance to make a pleasant rhyme,
Such as may profit in the after-time.

'So,

'So, tho' abroad perchance I might appear
Harsh and austere,
To those who on my leisure would intrude
Reserved and rude,
Gentle at home amid my friends I'd be
Like the high leaves upon the Holly Tree.

'And should my youth, as youth is apt I know,
Some harshness show,
All vein asperities I day by day
Would wear away,
Till the smooth temper of my age should be
Like the high leaves upon the Holy Tree.

'And as when all the summer trees are seen
So bright and green,
The Holly leaves their fadeless hues display
Less bright than they,
But when the bare and wintry woods we see
What then so chearful as the Holly Tree?

'So serious should my youth appear among
The thoughtless throng,
So would I seem amid the young and gay
More grave than they,
That in my age as chearful I might be
As the green winter of the Holly Tree.'

We object particularly to the 5th line of the first stanza; it is nothing more than familiar prose: the 6th is little better.

Elegy on a Quid of Tobacco. This we suppose to be an ironical piece: but we can trace no particular points of imitation, and may therefore be deceived.

Musings on the Wig of a Scarecrow. This is another heteroclite performance, by the author of the Elegy on a Quid of Tobacco: we shall lay it before our readers, that they may judge whether this be "his *Comedy or Tragedy.*"

'Alas for this world's changes and the lot
Of sublunary things! yon wig that there
Moves with each motion of the inconstant air,
Invites my pensive mind to serious thought.
Was it for this its curious caul was wrought
Close as the tender tendrils of the vine
With cluster'd curls? Perhaps the artist's care
Its borrowed beauties for some Lady fair
Arranged with nicest art and fingers fine;
Or for the forehead fram'd of some Divine
Its graceful gravity of grizzled grey;
Or whether on some stern Schoolmaster's brow
Sate its white terrors, who shall answer now?
On yonder rag-robed pole for many a day
Have those dishonour'd locks endur'd the rains

And winds, and summer sun, and winter snow,
Scaring with vain alarms the robber crow,
Till of its former form no trace remains,
None of its antient honours! I survey
It's alter'd state with moralizing eye,
And journey sorrowing on my lonely way,
And muse on Fortune's mutability.

THEODORIT.'

To a Young Man, who considered the Perfection of Human Nature as consisting in the Vigor and Indulgence of the more boisterous Passions. By Charles Lloyd. We observe nothing remarkable in this short sermon, excepting a new word,

'That most *Companiable* and awful Sense;'

We do not conceive that any author is entitled to clip the King's English at this unmerciful rate. The word *Companionable* has been admitted on the stage, with many other barbarisms: but it has never found its way into good writing.

To Mr. Opie, on his having painted for me the Picture of Mrs. Twiss. By Mrs. Opie. We shall give the reader the pleasure of seeing this respectable tribute of affection to Genius.

'Hail to thy pencil! well it's glowing art
Has traced those features painted on my heart:
Now, tho' in distant scenes she soon will rove,
Still shall I here behold the friend I love;
Still see that smile "endearing, artless, kind,"
The eye's mild beam that speaks the candid mind,
Which, sportive oft, yet fearful to offend,
By humour charms, but never wounds a friend.
But in my breast contending feelings rise,
While this lov'd semblance fascinates my eyes;
Now pleas'd, I mark the painter's skilful line,
Now joy, because the skill I mark was thine:
And while I prize the *gift* by thee bestow'd,
My heart proclaims I'm of the *giver proud.*
Thus pride and friendship war with equal strife,
And now the FRIEND exults, and now the WIFE.

AMELIA OPIE, 1799.'

The Oak of our Fathers. The author of this piece, whom we suppose to be Mr. Southey, has here spoken in a parable, against the intemperate zeal of some pretended friends to our Constitution; whom he likeneth to the ivy, which looseneth the roots of the tree to which it adhereth.

To a Friend, inquiring if I would live over my Youth again. By the repetition of his 'nay William nay,' we might suspect this to be a broad-brimm'd friend. Verily, he abhorreth the abomination of rhime, and goeth not a-whoring after the inven-

tions

tions of the heathen! The signature, *Erthusjo*, however, would bear, as an Anagram, to be decyphered R. Southey.

The Rhedycinian Barbers. A pretty close parody on one of Gray's Odes. The following stanzas will shew how trippingly the imitation goes off:

'Low the obdurate curl is laid,
By our irons straighten'd down;
Druss demands the finished head,
Soon the fore-*top* shall be done.

'Long shall Christ-Church smile with joy,
Such a head as this to see;
Long her strains in praise employ,
Strains of wit and repartee.'

The parody deserves the praise which belongs to such slight specimens of ingenuity.

Ode to the River Cam. By George Dyer. This melancholy bard reclines on the banks of 'Willowy Cam,' and, beholding divers places wherein his friends lie buried, drops a tear in stanza II. and could weep all night for the loss of his Julia, but that he espies the garden of his deceased friend Robert Robinson:

'Then again my bosom bleeds,
Then I drop the silent tear.'

In stanza III. he weeps for William Taylor, ordering the Cam to 'steal slow along;' and in stanza IV. he shews cause why he should weep again:

'Hark! I hear the death-bell sound!
There another spirit fled!
Still mine ears the tidings wound;
Philo * slumbers with the dead.
Well he knew the Critic's part;
Shakespeare's name to him was dear;
Kind and gentle was his heart;
—Now again I drop the tear.'

Certainly no poet ever wept more laboriously; and had he not wiped his eyes, and changed the subject in the succeeding page, his readers must have broken their hearts. This ode is the very dripping-stone of the Muses.

Chimalpoca. There are several good lines in this detached scene, founded on the Mexican history: but it is too abrupt to excite much interest, though short enough to be read without impatience.

St. Michael's Chair, and who sat there. It seems to be imagined, by some of our present writers, that the merit of old

'* Dr. Farmer.'

ballads consists in their quaintness; and that to adopt their obsolete phraseology is to appropriate their beauties. This is an unfortunate mistake. The authors of those compositions wrote the best language with which they were acquainted; and those who conceive that the modern style is incapable of expressing simplicity and feeling, with truth, need only turn to the ballads of Gay and Goldsmith. Gay is, indeed, the most perfect model for the English ballad. We read and repeat his verses without satiety; while we should never again endure to be told, that

'Merrily merrily rung the bells,
The bells of St. Michael's tower,
When Richard Penlake and Rebecca his wife
Arrived at the church-door.' (*dower*)

This is '*the right butter-woman's rank to market.*'

To the Burnie Bee *. There is a considerable display of sportive fancy in this little piece, which we shall therefore extract:

'Blythe son of summer, furl thy filmy wing,
Alight beside me on this bank of moss;
Yet to its sides the lingering shadows cling,
And sparkling dews the dark-green tufts imboss.

'Here may'st thou freely quaff the nectar'd sweet
That in the violet's purple chalice hides,
Here on the lily scent thy fringed feet,
Or with the wild-thyme's balm anoint thy sides.

'Back o'er thy shoulders throw those ruby shards
With many a tiny coal-black freckle deckt,
My watchful look thy loitering saunter guards,
My ready hand thy footstep shall protect.

'Daunted by me beneath this trembling bough
On forked wing no greedy swallow sails,
No hopping sparrow pries for food below,
Nor evet lurks, nor dusky blindworm trails.

'Nor shall the swarthy gaoler for thy way
His grate of twinkling threads successful strain,
With venom'd trunk thy writhing members slay,
Or from thy heart the reeking life's-blood drain.

'Forego thy wheeling in the sunny air
Thy glancing to the envious insects round,
To the dim calmness of my bower repair,
Silence and Coolness keep its hallowed ground.

'Here to the elves who sleep in flowers by day
Thy softest hum in lulling whispers pour,

* 'A provincial name of the beetle Coccinella, or lady-bird.'

Or

Or o'er the lovely band thy shield display
When blue-eyed twilight sheds her dewy shower.

'So shall the fairy-train by glow-worm light
With rainbow tints thy folding pennons fret,
Thy scaly breast in deeper azure dight,
Thy burnish'd armour speck with glossier jet.

'With viewless fingers weave thy wintry tent,
And line with gossamer thy pendant cell,
Safe in the rift of some lone ruin pent
Where ivy shelters from the storm-wind fell.

'Blest if like thee I cropt with heedless spoil
The gifts of youth and pleasure in their bloom,
Doom'd for no coming winter's want to toil,
Fit for the spring that waits beyond the tomb.'

The idea of this poem seems to have been suggested by Lovelace's charming Ode to the Grasshopper; the general plan of which *he* took from Anacreon:

"O thou that swing'st upon the waving hair
Of some well-filled oaten beard,
Drunk ev'ry night with a delicious tear,
Dropt thee from heav'n, where now thou'rt rear'd.

LOVELACE.

The word 'shards,' in the third stanza, however correct, is not poetical, and ought to have been rejected.

Inscriptions, by Robert Southey. When we say that these inscriptions remind us of those which were published by Akenside, we pay Mr. Southey a lower compliment than many of our readers might suppose. The general fault of these pieces is that they are too long, and that the lines, by running into each other, become prosaic. Tameness, too, is substituted here for simplicity; the absence of superfluous ornament is not a sufficient recommendation of style; it should come forth *naturali pulchritudine*. We meet with no felicity of expression, nor any novelty of thought, which can furnish an interesting extract.

Stanzas written on the Sea-Shore, in 1792, signed by Mrs. Opie, contain much good sense, though not expressed with any remarkable poetical force.

Living without God in the World. By Charles Lamb. This gentleman must be some preternatural Being, for he proclaims,

'*I* see a mighty arm, by man unseen.'

We should therefore suppose him to be the shadow of an author; and indeed there is nothing very substantial in his lines.

The Sons of Genius. We cannot afford the praise either of poetical energy or elegance to this composition. The lines are heavy and monotonous, and there is not sufficient vigour

in the thoughts to atone for the metrical defects. The rhimes are inaccurate: *play* and *sea*, *war* and *shore*, are made to correspond.—We hope that the author will produce better proofs than the present, of his claim to be admitted among the lawful sons of Genius. This poem inclines to the *bend sinister*.

Song, by Mrs. Opie. A pretty, sentimental trifle.

The Song of Pleasure. We have found no pleasure in perusing this song: it consists of a few common images, borrowed from former poets, and not decorated by new expressions.

To Indolence. This is another ode in blank verse; its greatest peculiarity is that, notwithstanding the title, it appears about the middle of the poem that it is *not* addressed to Indolence, but to 'her sister Leisure.' This is quite a new way of writing, but we observe nothing else remarkable in the composition.

The Filbert. "There can be no kernel in this light nut *;" unless the poem be intended to satirize somebody. If such were the author's design, he ought to have afforded us some means of guessing at his object.

Sonnets. These are all nearly equal in merit. That the reader may determine what degree of praise they deserve, we shall insert two, one of which is a very successful parody on the serious pieces:

'How soothing sweet methinks it is to walk
By moonlight, when the still delicious calm
Sheds o'er the love-lorn soul a grateful balm,
And woos the woe to peace! O then I talk,
Rapt in myself as slow I pace along,
Of hopeless Love, and weep upon my wounds,
Soft as the hollow gale's expiring sounds,
Soft as the veiled virgin's evening song,
Soft as mild Melancholy's noiseless tread.
Thus breathing many a plaint and many a sigh,
I gaze the moon with fondly-fixed eye
Musing on many a lovely vision fled
Hopeless and sad, till down I sink to rest,
By sorrow, silence, solitude, opprest.'—

'That gooseberry-bush attracts my wandering eyes,
Whose vivid leaves so beautifully green
First opening in the early spring are seen;
I sit and gaze, and cheerful thoughts arise
Of that delightful season drawing near
When those grey woods shall don their summer dress
And ring with warbled love and happiness.
I sit and think that soon the advancing year

* Shakspeare.

With

With golden flowers shall star the verdant vale.
Then may the enthusiast Youth at eve's lone hour,
Led by mild Melancholy's placid power,
Go listen to the soothing nightingale
And feed on meditation; while that I
Remain at home and feed on gooseberry-pye.'

In a sonnet to *Personification*, we observe a very unwarrantable extension of the poetical licence.

' Discord and Death, and stern defying Fate,
Walk'd o'er the earth, destroying. Such is PERSONIFICATION. He whom she employs
To deck her labors, and increase her joys.'

This passage reminds us of those verses which were

" Written by William Prynne, Esquire, the
Year of our Lord 1633."

The Killcrop. This dialogue turns on a popular superstition, which supposes that a dæmon is substituted occasionally for a child, to the vexation of some honest peasant. The name given to the supposititious child is Killcrop;—a passage to this purpose is quoted from Luther's works.

The Spirit. This story is told with some humour, and will be read with pleasure by those who are fond of nursery-tales.

Eclogue, by Robert Southey; *The last of the Family.* An affecting poem might be written on this subject, but Mr. S. has proved so very correct in his imitation of the gossipping of Farmer James and Farmer Gregory, that he has taken off much from the gravity as well as the interest of the piece.

Ode to St. Michael's Mount, in Cornwall. This ode presents nothing which we are tempted to extract. The rhimes are very incorrect: *recal* and *soul*, *sea* and *away*, *philosophy* and *eye*, are not admissible in a short poem.

The Tempest. We observe, in the measure and sentiments of this poem, an imitation of Dr. Beattie's *Hermit*, but certainly no improvement on the original. Dr. Beattie's verses were evidently founded on some lines of the epitaph on Bion, by Moschus;

Αι, αι, ἄι μαλαχαι, επαν κατα καπον ολῶνται, &c.

but the despondency of the Grecian poet, on the subject of a future state, has been happily corrected by the hopes of the Christian bard.

The Hermit-Boy. By A. S. Cottle. This story is taken from one of Fontaine's tales: *Les Oies de Frere Philippe.* It is here attempted in the measure of Mr. Lewis's *Alonzo the Bold and the Fair Imogene*, with no peculiar felicity.

The Seas. The author of this piece was probably instructed by a schoolmaster, like him who is mentioned by Quintillian,

whose precept was constantly σκοτίζον, *be obscure.* We have not the honour of understanding this gentleman's language. It is too '*peregrinate*' for us.

Passages, extracted from imitative "Verses on Alexander's Expedition down the Hydaspes and the Indus, to the Indian Ocean," printed in 1792, *but not published.* These verses, which have the signature of Dr. Beddoes, are intended (we suppose) to resemble the poetry of the *Botanic Garden.* In some passages, the imitation is pretty correct: but, in general, the tone and finishing are unequal to the productions of Dr. Darwin.

Some of Dr. Beddoes's opening lines will remind our readers strongly of the Botanic Garden:

'At first low murmurs creep; at length the bands
Ope their glad lips, and smite their joyous hands,
Till land and waters pour exulting cries,
And pealing shouts assail the Indian skies—'

It is remarkable that the allegorical personages in Dr. Darwin's poem exhibit only two actions; they either *wave their locks,* or clap their hands.—The verses on the premature death of Alexander are much superior to those which we have just quoted:

'But Earth's fond hope how blasted in its bloom!
How feels a world convulsed thy early doom!
What mingling sounds of woe and outrage rise:
How wild the eddying dust of ruin flies!
As frantic Chiefs the Master's pile deface,
Rend his strong walls and shake the deep-laid base.

Mourn, India, mourn—The womb of future time
Teems with the fruit of each portentous crime.
The Crescent onwards guides consuming hosts,
And Carnage dogs the Cross along thy coasts;
From Christian strands, the rage accursed of gain
Wafts all the Furies in its baleful train,
Their eye-ball strained, impatient of the way,
They snuff, with nostril broad, the distant prey.
—And now the Rout pollutes the hallowed shore
That nursed young Art and infant Science bore;
Fierce in the van, her fire-brand Warfare waves;
Dire at her heels the cry of hell-hounds raves;
Roused by the yell, the Greedy and the Bold
Start to the savage chace of blood and gold.'

We must observe, on one line,

'That nursed young Art and infant Science bore;'

that it appears to be taken from a very good line by Mr. Hayley, in which he describes India as

"The soil that infant Art and letters bore."

The strain of these verses, however, is generally above the common

common level, and affords a remarkable proof of versatility of talents.

We now close our account of this volume, which has run to an unexpected length, though we have refrained from noticing one half of its contents. We have praised when we could; we have been silent, when the subject merited neither praise nor blame; and we have attacked nothing but affectation, the mortal poison of every species of composition. In whatever form this enemy of good poetry may appear, whether in over-strained refinement or in vulgar simplicity, we shall use our utmost endeavours to expose it. It is particularly incumbent on us thus to exert ourselves, when we observe writers of merit justifying their carelessness, and bespeaking our favour for verses

> "Which a dog might write,
> If he could hold a pen,"

as our old acquaintance Hall has said. The insurmountable objection to all hasty productions is, "Why do you publish?" The art of rhiming correctly is now so common, that it excites no surprize; and unless a writer can excel his predecessors, he has no justifiable temptation to appear in print, excepting the facility of his readers. A book newly printed is a novelty to the multitude, though it may contain nothing new to scholars.—We hope that the next volume of this work will exhibit more estimable originality, and less of the *bizarre*, than the one which is now before us.

Fer.r

Art. IV. *Transactions of the Linnean Society*, Vol. IV. 4to. 1l. 5s. Boards. White. 1798. Vol. V. 1l. 1s. Boards. White. 1800.

Unavoidable circumstances having delayed our account of the fourth volume of this work, a fifth has just made its appearance, and we shall now pay due attention to both.—This quickness in the publication of the Linnean Society reflects the highest credit on the zeal and science of its members; particularly when we recollect that the approbation of all lovers of natural history in Great Britain, as well as on the Continent, has hitherto been the only encouragement which they have received.—The papers contained in both these volumes comprehend much valuable information, which will serve to give improvement to different parts of the science, and to furnish observations and details which may be useful to future inquirers.

In vol. iv. we find twenty-four papers; the first of which, entitled *Aves Sussexienses*, by William Markwick, Esq. is a

systematical catalogue of 175 species of birds observed by him in the county of Sussex; distinguishing those that are continually resident there, and those which migrate to that country in summer or winter, or are occasional visitors. This catalogue is followed by a number of notes relative to particular species, in which Mr. Markwick proves himself to be an attentive and candid observer.

Anecdotes of the late Dr. Patrick Browne, Author of the Natural History of Jamaica*; by Aylmer Bourke Lambert, Esq. —In an excursion to Ireland in 1790, Mr. Lambert made a visit to the above-named meritorious and venerable botanist, then living retired at Ballinrobe, in the county of Mayo. All that Mr. L. saw and learned of him shews how deeply rooted was his passion for botany, even in his last days; for he died soon afterward, at an advanced age. These anecdotes may be considered as useful materials for a *Biographia Botanica*; which is still a *desideratum*.

Descriptions of three rare Species of British Birds, by G. Montagu, Esq.—These three species are the *sylvia sylvicola*, or wood-wren; the *tringa nigricans*, or phayrelarn sand-piper; and the *alauda petrosa*, or rock lark. The second of these birds is a non-descript, and was killed at Larn, in Wales.

Account of some Species of fossil Anomiæ, found in Derbyshire. By Mr. William Martin.—The species of *anomiæ* found in the lime-stone strata of Derbyshire are very numerous. In about two years, Mr. Martin had collected twenty-nine species of them; fourteen of which belong to the tribe of the imperforate, and fifteen to the perforate. He classes them according to the proportions and shape of their valves, hinges, margins, and apertures. One among them, not before noticed by naturalists, he describes at full length under the name of *anomia cuspidata*. Some pertinent observations are found in this paper respecting the hinge of these shells, and their perforation, considered as a generic character.

Essay on the Eye-like Spot in the Wings of the Locustæ of Fabricius, as indicating the Male Sex; by Professor Lichtenstein. —We are not to wonder if, in describing the innumerable organized beings, even the greatest naturalists have been sometimes bewildered as to the proper import of the differences which are observed. The study of natural history is of so recent a date, and its object is so widely extended, that such mistakes scarcely diminish our good opinion of those who committed them, and only add lustre to the sagacity of those later observers who perceive and correct them. Fabricius had taken the curious

* See Rev. vol. xv. p. 301. 333.

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eye-like spots, which are the subject of this essay, as specific differences of some *locustæ*; and he had therefore called them *L. perspicillata*, *L. specularis*, *L. perforata*. The author of this paper had occasion to examine a great number of species of this genus of insects, in the Holthusian museum; and he found that, in *all* species of locustæ, the males possessed this singular character, and the females were deprived of it. He describes the structure and use of this part, exemplifying it in the *locusta salvifolia*, of which he gives a figure.—The paper is full of entomological erudition. Such observations tend to diminish the number; already too great, of species of insects; a class of animals in which it is probable that the two sexes, in many instances, having different appearances, have been described as so many different species. Linné had already remarked that the *papilio jurtina*, and the *papilio janira*, were only different sexes of the same species.

A new Arrangement of the Genus Polytrichum, with some Emendations, by Mr. Archibald Menzies.—As this botanist very justly observes, the character of a genus, and the consequent arrangement of it, are perfectly settled only when a sufficient number of species is known. For this reason, the Linnean character of *polytrichum* is not satisfactory; and Mr. Menzies prefers that which was proposed by Leers, and adopted by the late Mr. Curtis in the *Flora Londinensis*. After having fixed and detailed the natural character of the genus, he describes nineteen species of *polytrichum*, six of which are new; and four among these have been gathered by the author in the North-west parts of America, where he went with Captain Vancouver in his voyage round the world *.

Observations on the Spinning Limax, by Dr. Latham.—Mr. Hoy had given, in the first volume of the Linnean transactions, an account of this animal, which seems to be the *limax agrestis* of Linné; and Colonel Montagu had occasion to make, in Cornwall, some observations on its faculty of suspending itself by a thread of its own spinning. These are the observations published in this paper by Dr. Latham; who is inclined to think it very possible that the spinning faculty may belong to every species of the genus *limax*.

An Essay on the Trachea or Windpipes of various Kinds of Birds; by *the same*.—In most birds, the natural shape of the windpipe is that of a regularly uniform cylinder of equal diameter, or nearly so throughout, from its rise at the root of the tongue to its entrance into the hollow of the breast-bone; where it divides into two branches, called *bronchiæ*, which ramify into

* See Rev. vol. xxviii. N.S. p. 1. 141. 374.

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air-vessels composing the two lobes of the lungs. A peculiar deviation from this general structure is observable in the males only of several species of birds, and had been mentioned by different naturalists. Dr. Latham, to whom ornithology is much indebted for his former publications, investigates this subject in the present paper with great attention and accuracy. He remarks that the deviations from the common structure of the trachea, in birds, are of two kinds. In the first, this organ, although of equal diameter, (or nearly so,) differs in being longer than the neck, thus allowing of a double about the middle of it; or forming one or more folds within the keel-like process of the sternum, which is hollowed out for that purpose; or, instead of entering the keel, it runs more or less over the surface of the breast, beneath the skin. The second kind of deviation is where the windpipe is unequal in diameter, although not elongated, but alters in shape and size in its progress to the lungs, before its divarication into the two lung-pipes.

Dr. Latham gives the details of his remarks on this subject, in twenty seven species of birds; in all of which, the structure of the windpipe deviates from the common shape. He has found instances of the first kind of deviation in birds of different genera, but of the second only in some species of the two genera *Anas* and *Merganser*.

Observations on bituminous Substances, with a Description of the Varieties of the elastic Bitumen; by Charles Hatchett, Esq.—The Bovey coal, and the elastic bitumen of Derbyshire, are the two chief objects of this paper; and the observations which it contains, on the other bituminous substances, seem to be introduced with the view of explaining the nature of these two objects in a perspicuous manner; connecting them at the same time with the whole system of the bitumens, their origin and modifications. We cannot but praise the judgment of the author, in thus enlarging the views of the reader and avoiding repetitions.

The Bovey coal, both from its analysis and from its comparison with the Surturbrand of Iceland, Mr. Hatchett is inclined to believe was produced from putrified vegetables; in which all the vegetable principles had been separated by the process of putrifaction: but the carbon, though developed by this natural operation, had not been dissipated by the free access of the air. The elastic bitumen of Derbyshire, of which he describes two species and twenty two varieties, very much resembles, in elasticity and colour, the Caoutchouc, or Indian rubber. When melted, it loses the elastic property, and a quantity of gaz is disengaged from it. What is melted

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is either *petroleum*, or mineral tar, mineral pitch, or *asphaltum*, according to the different varieties. Hence the suspicion justly arises, that the elastic property might be occasioned by the interposition of some elastic fluid with the parts of the bitumen; since, by melting it, the elastic fluid is liberated, and the moss loses that fine spongy texture which is probably the cause of the elastic property.

Though this paper contains no chemical analysis, yet that profound skill in chemistry, for which its author is celebrated, pervades the whole of it.

An Account of the Jumping Mouse of Canada—Dipus Canadensis; by Major-General Davies.—As the species of the Jerboa kind, hitherto known, inhabit countries near the tropics, or within them, it is curious to find one species of it inhabiting a climate so intensely cold as Canada. Though its conformation classes it with the Jerboas, its habits are affected by the nature of the climate. During the cold season, from September to May, the jumping mouse lies in a dormant state, like other animals of cold countries.

Observations on the Flowering of certain Plants; by Professor Martyn.—Every botanist is acquainted with the Horologium Floræ of Linné; to which these valuable remarks of Professor Martyn relate. The Professor observed, from the middle of August 1796 to the beginning of October following, the periodical expansion of the flowers of the *anagallis arvensis*, *oenothera biennis*, and *hibiscus trionum*, &c. comparing the modifications of this phænomenon with those of the weather, the barometer, and the thermometer. He describes also the curious movements which accompany the flowering in the last two plants.

Remarks on some foreign Species of Orobanche; by James Edward Smith, M.D. &c. &c.—The depth of botanical knowlege, which generally characterizes the publications of this celebrated naturalist, is also conspicuous in the paper now before us; in which he demonstrates that the first species of this genus, in Linné's distribution, *viz.* the *orobanche lævis*, is a non-entity; and that its history has been fabricated partly from synonyms belonging to the *orchis abortiva*, and partly from those of a real *orobanche* unknown to Linné; the characters of which do not answer either to the name or description of the *orobanche lævis*. After the examination of this imaginary species, he describes two real species, growing in foreign countries, *viz. the orobanche caryophyllacea*, and *gràcilis*.

A Description of five British Species of Orobanche; by the Rev. Charles Sutton, B. D. &c.—After having examined the curious germination of this genus of plants, Mr. Sutton describes

scribes and critically examines the *orabanche major*, *elatior*, *minor*, *cærulea*, and *ramosa*; all growing in Great Britain.

Account of a minute Ichneumon; by Dr. George Shaw. This truly microscopical insect, the *ichneumon punctum*, seems to differ from the *ichneumon atomas* of Linné: but Dr. Shaw declines to decide the question, and contents himself with marking the difference and giving the description.

Description of the Phasma Dilatatum; by Mr. John Parkinson. —This curious insect is supposed to be a native of Asia.

Description of the Blight of Wheat, Uredo Frumenti; by A. B. Lambert, Esq.—Every minute circumstance which relates to the history and culture of wheat has a considerable degree of importance attached to it; and therefore this paper is deserving of attention.

Ammophila, a new Genus of Insects in the Class Hymenoptera; by the Rev. William Kirby.—The importance of the parts commonly called *instrumenta cibaria*, in order to discriminate the genera of insects, is generally allowed by all entomologists, since Fabricius built his system chiefly on them. Mr. Kirby, having dissected several insects of the class *hymenoptera*, found the tongue and its accompanying parts very different in the *apis*, the *vespa*, and the *sphex*; and in the *sphex sabulosa*, or sand wasp, very different from all the preceding. This observation led him to the institution of this new genus, of which he gives the natural and essential characters, together with the description of four distinct species. It appears to be very fairly distinguished from the *apis* by the bifid tongue, and by the antennæ filiform in every sex; from the *vespa*, by the direction of the rostrum, the form of the eyes, and the plane surface of the wings; from the *sphex*, by the direction and length of the rostrum, and the bifid tongue. This last characteristic, with the number of articulations, and form of the antennæ, prevent this insect from being confounded with the *ichneumons*.

The Characters of twenty new Genera of Plants; by Dr. James Edward Smith.—Some years ago, Dr. Smith began to publish, periodically, the Botany of New Holland. The interruption of this design we cannot but lament; and it is to be hoped that he may yet resume the work. In the mean time, he here gives the characters of nineteen new genera from that distant country; together with the *afzelia*, a new genus from tropical Africa.

Further Observations on the Wheat Insect, in a Letter to the Rev. Dr. Samuel Goodenough; by Thomas Marsham, Esq.—In the third volume of the Linnean Transactions, Mr. Marsham had given an account of an insect which, in the year 1795, attacked the ears of the wheat in several parts of England. His entomological

nological skill persuaded him that this larva belonged to some small musca, and resembled very much those aphidivorous larvæ, which produce one particular family of the muscæ: but unfortunately none of the naturalists, who curiously observed this insect, could succeed in breeding the fly which this small larva is destined to produce. In this paper, Mr. Marsham communicates the observations of Mr. Markwick, with some remarks on them.

History of Tipula Tritici and Ichneumon Tipulæ, with some Observations upon other Insects that attend the Wheat; in a Letter to Thomas Marsham, Esq. by the Rev. William Kirby.—A close observation of the metamorphosis of the above-mentioned larva has enabled Mr. Kirby to furnish Mr. Marsham, the institutor of the researches concerning that insect, with a considerable portion of satisfactory information. The larva belongs to the *tipula tritici:* but a little ichneumon lays its eggs on this caterpillar, and kills it. In consequence, two different insects come forth from these larvæ, and the destruction which the first species might occasion is kept in due bounds by the efforts of the second.

Account of a new Species of Muscicapa, from New South Wales; by Major-General Davies.

Observations on the genus Pausus, and Description of a new Species; by Dr. Afzelius, of the University of Upsal.—The etymology of this generic name, as explained by Dr. Afzelius, is extremely interesting to all the admirers of the great Linné. It is derived from the Greek word παῦσις, signifying *a pause, a cessation, a rest.* Linné, old and infirm, saw in the year 1775, when this genus was first constituted, no possibility of any longer continuing his glorious career; and wishing to put a stop to his exertions, he gave this name to the last of the insects which he ever described. Though several naturalists have spoken of this insect, yet, from the blunders which they have committed, Dr. Afzelius justly suspects that none of them saw it, except Linné, Thunberg, and Fabricius.

This paper contains not only a full description of all the parts which may serve to constitute the genus, but the two species of it are described at full length, in English and in Latin. The first species is the old Linnean; the second is a non-descript brought by Dr. Afzelius from Sierra Leona.

Observations on the British species of Bromus, with introductory remarks on the composition of a Flora Britannica; by Dr. James Edward Smith.—From these remarks on the composition of a British Flora, our expectations of Dr. Smith's exertions in the Flora Britannica, which he is now about to publish, rise very high; and supported as they are by the talents which he has

manifested in former publications, we are confident that this work will be as valuable as it was necessary. The examination of the difficult genus *Bromus*, and of twelve British species of it, which follows the remarks on the *Flora Britannica*, may be considered as a pattern of critical botany.

Some Corrections of the general description of Polytrichum rubellum, with an Account of another new Species of the same genus. By Mr. Menzies.—In this supplementary paper, (see page 365,) the new species described is the *Polytrichum subulatum*, gathered in New Zealand by Mr. Nelson.

An account of the Vth volume is preparing for our next Number.

ART. V. *An Account of the Operations carried on for accomplishing a Trigonometrical Survey of England and Wales;* from the Commencement, in the Year 1784, to the End of the Year 1796. Begun under the Direction of the Royal Society, and continued by Order of the Honourable Board of Ordnance. First published in, and now revised from, the Philosophical Transactions, by Captain William Mudge, F. R. S. and Mr. Isaac Dalby. Vol. I. Illustrated with 22 Copper-plates. 4to. pp. 457. 1l. 8s. Boards. Faden. 1799.

THE memoirs relative to the trigonometrical survey being published only in the Transactions of the Royal Society, and consequently not generally accessible, Mr. Faden has been induced to re-print in a separate work whatever has been published on that subject; and the arrangement of the several materials of this work has been entrusted to Captain Mudge and Mr. Dalby. Concerning the alterations made by them in the original papers, we are thus informed in the preface:

'In proceeding to narrate the innovations made in the original papers, we shall begin with observing that, the principal articles, as well as the plates, have been respectively numbered in succession, for the conveniency of reference during the reprinting of the work. No material alterations will be found in General Roy's Account of the Measurement on Hounslow Heath, if we except a correction of about eight inches in the reduction of the base, which was 27404.7 feet, instead of 27404.01. For this reason, all the sides of the principal triangles to the XIVth and the distances depending on them, in the account of the operation in 1787, 1788, are reduced in the proportion of 27404.7 to 27404.2; the latter being a mean of the two measurements (p. 138). The other deductions, to the eastward, are derived from the mean distance of Hollingborn Hill and Fairlight Down, resulting from both bases (p. 142). This second account, however, follows the original, with a few variations, till Art. 57, excepting the reduction of the base of verification (Art. 25.) which is corrected, and given in another form. What is inserted between XIIIth and XIVth triangles, with the remainder of the same Article after the XXXVIIth triangle, are additions. The triangles on

the other side of the Channel, in Pl. XIV. which were numbered from XXXVI. to XLIV. are omitted in the text, as M. M. Cassini, Méchain, and Legendre have now published their own corrected account, entitled "*Exposé des Opérations faites en France en* 1787, *pour la Jonction des Observatoires de Paris et de Greenwich*;" but what was necessary for the triangular connection, is taken from that publication. From this Article to the 79th, the whole, but two or three pages, is written *de novo*, and, in some respects, may be considered as an abridgment: nothing, however, is omitted but what appeared either unnecessary, or not immediately connected with the principal design. What relates to the meridional degree, resulting from the combined operation, is much more copious. And, in the Article on the difference of meridians of Greenwich and Paris, an answer is given to some objections of M. Lalande. The Longitude of Paris, in this Article, is 2° 19′ 51″, which exceeds that in the original publication, or 2° 19′ 42″, this latter being computed with the perpendicular degree, as derived from the operation in Kent (Art. 68.); but it cannot be considered so accurate as the other result, for the reasons given in p. 167. 303. That 61182 fathoms is, very nearly, the length of a degree of a great circle perpendicular to the meridian in latitude 50° 41′, cannot be doubted, since the observations at Dunnose and Beachy Head (Art. 102.) were made with great care, and are sufficiently numerous: but, the method of determining differences of longitude by angular measurement being totally new, it must, as a matter of course, rest on its own principles, till comparisons can be drawn from similar operations. Were other degrees perpendicular to the meridian, or of longitude, measured in remote latitudes, it might, perhaps, enable us to distinguish among the different meridional degrees already obtained, those which ought to be rejected, in order to reconcile the greatest number of results from both methods of operation, to some regular figure of the earth. In M. Cassini de Thury's book, *Le Meridien verifié*, we find an account of the first arc of longitude, which seems to have been measured with tolerable care. The operation was performed in lat. 43° 32′, on a distance of about 97 miles between the stations Cette and St. Victoire (lying nearly east and west) in the south of France: the distance being ascertained by means of a chain of triangles, the times of the instantaneous explosion of gunpowder, fired at a central situation, were noted at the stations, and thence the degree of longitude was inferred, being 44358 fathoms; which, however, appears not to have been considered as conclusive by the French mathematicians.

'The rules in Art. 72, for computing the mean refractions and relative heights are, in substance, the same with those given in the account of 1795 and 1796: they are shorter and much more direct than those which are given for that purpose in the original account. The corrections in the secondary triangles, with the bearings of the stations, (Art. 59.) and most of the additions in the latter part of Art. 57, are taken from the remarks in the second part of the Philosophical Transactions for 1790. And to those secondary triangles are now added the bearings, with the computed latitudes and longitudes of 32 of the intersected objects.

'The note p. 5 is, perhaps, unnecessarily retained, as it seems to allude to the Paper published by Doctor Maskelyne two years after in the Philosophical Transactions for 1787.

'The accounts of the Survey, from 1791 to 1796, are printed from the originals, without any other alterations, but such as were deemed necessary for giving the whole an appearance of uniformity, as far as the different parts would admit. The variations, however, principally consist in transferring Articles 113, 146, from the latter to the former of the two accounts. In our paper of 1795 and 1796, it will be found that, the distances of some of the intersected objects, from the meridian and perpendicular of Greenwich, vary, in a trifling degree, from those given in the account of 1796. These differences arise from a part of the former computations having been made with 27404.7 feet, the length of the base on Hounslow Heath as given by General Roy, and those which are at present spoken of, with 27404.2 feet, the mean of the two measurements, Art. 172. These refinements do not, of course, materially affect the conclusions in that part of our former work, to which we refer.

'The latitudes and longitudes of the stations in the Survey of 1795 and 1796, as well as the objects intersected from them, do not appear in the original Account. When that Paper was drawn up, there were not sufficient *data* for computing those arguments: but, we have since observed the direction of the meridian at the stations on Blackdown in Dorsetshire, Buttertonhill in Devonshire, and St. Agnes' Beacon in Cornwall. These observations will enable us to supply this omission in the next Account we present to the Royal Society. With respect to the Plates, the XVth is entirely a new one, and the XXth is reduced to its present size, from that given in the first Account, for the purpose of commodiously folding into the volume.'

Of this work, since the several parts have already appeared before the public, a critical examination will not now be expected from us. The volume is handsomely printed, and the plates, which are very numerous, are well executed. This first part contains, a Measurement of the Base on Hounslow Heath, in 1784: Trigonometrical Operations, in 1787, 1788: Trigonometrical Survey, 1791, 1794: Trigonometrical Survey, 1795, 1796.

R. Wood.

ART. VI. *Two Successive Tours throughout the whole of Wales*, with several of the adjacent English Counties; so as to form a comprehensive View of the Picturesque Beauty, the peculiar Manners, and the fine Remains of Antiquity, in that interesting Part of the British Island. By Henry Skrine, Esq. 8vo. pp. 280. 6s. Boards. Elmsley and Bremner. 1798.

THOSE who have read Mr. Skrine's tours in England and Scotland, which were noticed in our 19th vol. N.S. p. 322. will not need any particular recommendation of this work.

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The author is an instructive and amusing traveller, who directs our attention to those objects which are most important and interesting, and whose reflections are judicious and entertaining. Nothing seems to have escaped his notice, that could be deemed worthy of selection and remark; and he has furnished a volume which will serve as a very useful directory to those who wish to make the tour either of North or South Wales, or of those parts of England which lie upon the borders of the Principality. For the information of such persons, and in justice to the author, (whose work we have accidentally overlooked for a considerable time,) we shall select the sketches which he has given of the extent of each of his tours; and we shall close the article with an extract or two from his descriptive character of the inhabitants of Wales.

'The first of these tours (says Mr. Skrine) is devoted to the description of South Wales, and begins with the views from the Cotteswold hills in Glocestershire, where the approach to that country naturally opens. After coasting the Severn from Glocester to Newnham, and traversing the forest of Dean, it pursues the navigation of the Wye from Ross to Monmouth and Chepstowe, and after visiting the two passage houses on the Bristol Channel, pervades Monmouthshire in various parts, so as to include nearly the whole of that fine county, with its capital. From Abergavenny it enters Brecknockshire, and after pursuing the Uske almost to its source beyond Brecknock, it descends by the works of Merthyr-Tydvil to the Pont-i-Prydd, in the vale of Taaffe in Glamorganshire, from whence by Caerphilli Castle, crossing again through a corner of Monmouthshire, it takes the coast road with little deviations by Cardiffe, Cowbridge, and Swansea, to Tenby in Pembrokeshire. That extreme county, unlike the rest of South Wales both in its appearance and its inhabitants, offers a variety of objects in the scenery attendant on Milford-Haven, the towns and castles of Pembroke and Haverfordwest, and the superb ruins of St. David's. From thence the coast is pursued as far as Fisguard, and the tour then takes an inland direction by Narbeth and Caermarthen, the two fine vales of the Towey, and the pass of Cwm-Dwr to Brecknock; it then returns to Llanymdovery by Builth, Llandrindod and Llanwrted Wells, and enters Cardiganshire at Llanbeder. From Cardigan, after visiting Kilgarren Castle, it again reaches the coast, which it follows with little variation to Aberystwith, from whence it turns inland by the banks of the Rhydol and the Ystwith to the romantic scenery about the Devil's bridge and Havod; then crossing the mountains from Cwmystwith to Rhyadergowy, it penetrates through the interior of Radnorshire by Knighton, Presteigne, Kington, and Radnor, and approaches England by the course of the Wye through its beautiful vale from Builth to the Hay. The rich plains of Herefordshire succeed, and the reader is conducted by Hereford and Ledbury over the Malvern hills to Worcester, where this part of the travel naturally ends.

'The tour of North Wales begins at that city, and taking a short compass of the vale of Evesham, includes many of the ornamented seats and towns of Warwickshire, Worcestershire, and Staffordshire, with Bridgnorth and the works of Colebrook-dale, in its approach to Shrewsbury. It then makes a slight deviation to visit the beautiful display of Hawkestone, and crossing the plain of Shropshire, enters North Wales from Oswestry, near Chirk Castle; by which place, Wynne-stay, and Wrexham, it reaches the curious old city of Chester. The coast and the interior of the little county of Flint succeed, and from Holywell the descent is made into the beautiful vale of Clwydd, extending from the South of Ruthyn to Denbigh, and the sea beyond Saint Asaph. The vale and river of the Conway are then traced from its mouth to Llanrwst and the falls among the mountains near its source, and the return is made on the opposite bank to Conway. The pass of Penman-mawr and Bangor ferry conduct the reader into Anglesea, where Beaumaris, Holy-Head, and the Paris mountain, form the principal objects. The Menai straits then lead to Caernarvon, from whence an expedition is made toward the horn of the Caernarvonshire coast which commands the bay of Cardigan, and the towns of Pwlwhelli, Crickheith, and Penmorva.—Great part of the Snowdonia is afterwards traversed, and the enchanting valley of Festiniog is approached by the stupendous rocks and pass of the Pont-Aberglasslyn; from the charming spot of Tan-y-bwlch, excursions are made to visit several points in the valley, and the proud castle of Harlech on the coast. Dolgelly is then approached by various grand objects in the wilds of Merionethshire, and the aestuary of the Mawdoch from thence to Barmouth, discloses a wonderful display beneath the northern base of the mighty mountain of Cader-Idris.—The tour then takes an inland direction by the lake of Bala, the romantic territory of Owen Glendwr near Corwen, and the beautiful valley of the Dee to Llangollen, with the picturesque ruin of Vale Crucis Abbey. A long tract over the Denbighshire Berouin afterwards conducts the reader to Llanrhaidr and the cataract of Pistill Rhaidr; by Llanvilling it approaches the stream of the upper Severn, and its banks are pursued through the rich vale of Montgomeryshire to Newtown and Llanidloes, near its source. Passing near the origin of the Wye, and almost under the base of Plinlimmon, this tour meets the former of South Wales at the Devil's bridge in Cardiganshire, and making a little curve by the Ystwith and Tivy to visit Strata Florida Abbey, recrosses it to reach Llanbadern Vawr; soon after which it re-enters North Wales, taking a sweep by the banks of the Dovey to Machynleth, Dinasmonthy, and the mountains which form the Southern base of Cader-Idris.—Turning inland again at Mallwydd, it passes the hills by Cann's office and Llanvair to return to the Severn, and crossing its vale to Montgomery, quits North Wales finally to approach Bishop's Castle and Ludlow in Shropshire, from whence it pursues the direct line towards Radnorshire and Brecknockshire, by Leominster and Weobly in Herefordshire, thus completing the circle.'

In expressing his sentiments concerning the difference which subsists between the respective inhabitants of North and South Wales,

Wales, as to their disposition and manner, the author observes (p. 267), that

'The frank and earnest temper of the Welsh, aided by a natural degree of characteristic pride, kept up the spirit of these distinctions long after the causes of them had subsided; and few nations have shewn, in modern times at least, so strong an attachment to the customs, the traditions, and the long traced descent of their ancestors. Insensibly, however, in the lapse of time, are these points of variation from their neighbours sinking into oblivion, their asperities have been softened down by mutual intercourse, and what remains is far more pleasing and curious than offensive to a stranger.—The provincial divisions have long since ceased to present any material difference in manners, except where peculiar circumstances (as in almost the whole of Pembrokeshire, and a part of the coast of Glamorganshire) have introduced a totally different people. Even the greater separation between the inhabitants of North and South Wales has in a considerable degree disappeared, their manners being so blended that, except the uniform and almost exclusive attachment to the music of the harp, it is now difficult to distinguish the few traces of originality which have been so long boasted by the native of North Wales as proofs of his superiority.'—

'Refinement has not yet attained to so high a pitch in Wales, that the social virtues should be extinguished, or even much obscured by apathy: among these virtues may justly be reckoned that singular attachment of its inhabitants to each other, which prevails most eminently in private families, and universally in the whole community.'

However, as refinement increases,

'The gentlemen of Wales, following the example of those of England, desert their proper stations and lose that high estimation which the imposing presence of an active and upright landlord has transmitted to posterity. A more useful or dignified being indeed can hardly exist than a native man of landed property in Wales, living with credit in the mansion-house of his ancestors, and exercising his talents for the general good as an upright magistrate, a friendly neighbour, and a liberal benefactor.

'High spirit, energetic animation, and courage, may be accounted strong points of the Welsh character; and these, when properly exhibited, cannot fail to create respect and admiration.'—

'Hospitality, that engaging affection, which may take root in every nation, but which retreats in general from the seats of opulence and luxury, is peculiarly adapted to the disposition of the Welsh, and wherever an opportunity has occurred, I have often witnessed its fascinating influence.'—'Open, ingenuous, and considerate, the native gentleman of Wales dispenses freely around him the benefits he receives from his position, and supports the character he derives from his predecessors by a well-timed and liberal attention to all who fall within his sphere of action.'

The few defects that appear among the valuable qualities of the Welsh, Mr. Skrine candidly traces to the excess of virtues,

'and, as the general civilization increases, they will no longer be observable.'

'Hence has the natural character for animation sometimes partaken too much of warmth of temper, and a hastiness of expression has gained the Welshman the reputation of being quarrelsome. Conviviality in too great an extreme has in some societies led to habitual intemperance, the minute attention to ancient customs has often retarded improvement, and the veneration shewn to a long line of ancestors has occasionally degenerated into the stiffness of family pride. The higher orders of society have already, in a great measure, emancipated themselves from these shackles, but the lower are yet slow in following so laudable an example. Among them the prevalent vice of drunkenness is apt to foster the seeds of every other evil; a litigious spirit, too often fomented industriously by the arts of chicane, supersedes frequently the natural tendency to fair dealing; an habitual idleness shuts up the sources of industry; and a want of attention to cleanliness, encumbering poverty, degrades it by the squalid appearance of want, raggedness, and disease. These shades in the national character, which are by no means so general as they have been, already fading imperceptibly beneath the sun-shine of prosperity, and the introduction of arts and manufactures, must ultimately yield to that enlightened spirit which arises from an enlarged intercourse with other countries, and the regular progress of improvement in every branch of industry.'

The author closes his comparative view of the two principal districts of Wales in the following terms:

'Thus have nature, art, and even the vestiges of decayed grandeur, adorned both parts of this interesting portion of our island with peculiar and mutual advantages: for the increasing improvement of each happy tract we may be allowed to hope, from the continued favour of Providence, and the successful industry of man. So, when that happy period arrives, in which all local distinctions of its parts are lost in the perfection of the whole, the impetuous spirit of the Welsh, corrected by, and correcting in its turn, the tempered perseverance of the English, may contribute to confirm, and prolong to future ages, the energetic respectability of the British character.'

Mr. Skrine very properly recommends to the attention of the traveller, Carey's large map of England and Wales, Evans's Survey of North Wales, Lord Lyttelton's elegant but concise Descriptions, Wyndham's pleasing Tour in Wales, and Pennant's Work, which he justly denominates accurate and excellent. He has also introduced a descriptive table of the contents of each chapter by way of index, the omission of which in his former work was certainly a defect.

Re.S.

ART. VII. *Reports of Adjudged Cases in the Court of Common Pleas*, during the Time Lord Chief Justice Willes presided in that Court; together with some few Cases of the same Period determined in the House of Lords, Court of Chancery, and Exchequer Chamber. Taken from the MSS. of Lord Chief Justice Willes, with Notes and References to prior and subsequent Decisions, by Charles Durnford, of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. Folio. pp. 750. 1l. 18s. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

WE have often had occasion to complain of the number of unnecessary and even useless law-books, which issue from the press; and we have frequently been under the disagreeable necessity of expressing our censure on this subject, in terms of considerable severity. In consulting such publications, the members of an enlightened and laborious profession are unprofitably occupied, and they rise from the perusal of them with unavailing regret for having bestowed any attention on their contents.—Dissatisfaction and disappointment not unfrequently attend our labours: but sometimes, to renew our good humour, and to dispel our disgust, we are presented with a work of real merit, by which our understandings are improved, and the stock of our information is enlarged. Of this description is the present volume; which we have read with unmixed satisfaction, both on account of the deserved celebrity of the author, and of the well-known judgment and accuracy of the editor, by whose diligent perseverance this production is now given to the world.

Chief Justice Willes presided in the Court of Common Pleas from Easter Term, in the tenth year of George the Second, 1737, to Trinity Term in the thirty-second year of the same king, 1758; and during the long period of twenty one years, he discharged the duties of a difficult and important station with undiminished credit to himself, and to the satisfaction of those who applied to him for justice. The publication of his decisions is calculated to continue his name as a lawyer in as high estimation in succeeding ages, as it was considered in his own time.

The MSS from which this volume is composed are unquestionably, Mr. Durnford observes, the hand-writing of the Chief Justice; who bequeathed them to his son, the late Mr. Justice Willes, by whom they were left to *his* son, the late Mr. Edward Willes; and on whose death, they came into the possession of his two surviving brothers, who entrusted the present editor with the publication.—Mr. D.'s various merits as a reporter are too universally known, and too constantly experienced, to require any praise on this occasion from us. Seven folio volumes, containing the decisions of the Court

Court of King's Bench for the last fifteen years, bear ample and unequivocal testimony to his unremitting diligence; and the discriminating knowlege and nice precision, with which they are executed, justly entitle him to a distinguished place among this description of authors: incontestably proving, also, that he has liberally discharged the debt which *every man*, according to Lord Coke, *owes to his profession.* As an editor, Mr. Durnford now appears before the public; and to his discretion is entrusted the reputation of that distinguished lawyer, whose name is prefixed to the present work.

On the subject of this volume, and of the sources from which it is derived, the editor shall speak for himself:

'The only hope I can indulge in becoming the Editor of this work is that the late season in which it is published may have enabled me to render it more valuable by references, in the notes, to the latest decisions in our courts. But this collection now appears in a more imperfect state than probably it would if either Mr. Justice Willes or the late Mr. E. Willes had published it; as many of the determinations of the Court of Common Pleas during the latter part of the time when the Chief Justice presided there are not now to be found, though it is evident from certain marks on the paper books of those cases, that he had written out the judgments of the court which he publicly delivered. This loss is however in some instances supplied by the manuscripts of the late Mr. Justice Wm. Fortescue, and by a copy of some notes taken by the late Mr. J. Abney, in the hand writing of his clerk, which I have added in the notes, the former of which were in the collection of the Lord Chief Justice Willes, and the latter were obligingly sent to me by Mr. Justice Lawrence.

'In examining the collection of Lord Chief Justice Willes's manuscripts, it is not (I trust) expected that I should publish the whole; I have selected such cases as appeared to me of the greatest importance. All those respecting the practice of the Court (except in very few instances) I have rejected altogether, not only because they were not of sufficient consequence to be printed in a work of this kind, but also because the decisions in many of them are already in print.

'*The body of this work* will be found to consist of four classes of cases:

'1st, Those which are taken verbatim from the Lord Chief Justice's manuscripts; and they are either the judgments of the court which he publicly delivered, containing as well his own abridgment of the record or special case as the reasons on which the opinion of the court was founded, or cases of which he wrote an account in his own note books after the cases had been determined.

'2dly, The judgments of the court which he gave, without his own abridgment of the records; the records in which cases I have abstracted either from the original records or from the paper books.

'3dly, Cases taken from short notes of the Lord Chief Justice's manuscripts, the records being abridged by myself.

'4thly,

'4thly, Those where nothing more appeared on the Lord Chief Justice's paper books than simply "judgment for the plaintiff" or "for the defendant" &c. the records of which cases I have abridged, and the opinions of the court I have taken from other quarters and added in the notes.

'Throughout the whole it may be observed that the language of the Lord Chief Justice is printed between inverted commas.

'*The notes to this work* (except where they consist of references to cases already in print and to some very modern decisions) may also be arranged in four classes:

'1st, Those of the Lord Chief Justice, distinguished by "MS. Lord Chief Justice Willes."

'2dly, Manuscript cases collected from various quarters, in the possession of the Lord Chief Justice, to many of which he referred himself; and they are distinguished thus "MS. Coll. Lord Chief Justice Willes."

'3dly, Manuscript notes of Mr. Baron (afterwards Mr. Justice) Wm. Fortescue, in his own hand writing; thus marked "MS. Mr. Justice Wm. Fortescue."

'4thly, Notes taken by the late Mr. Justice Abney, afterwards copied by his clerk; thus distinguished "MS. Abney J."

The correctness and authenticity of these Reports cannot be questioned, when it is known that most of them were written by the venerable author for the purpose of making them public, and may be said to have been published by himself to the profession from the Bench. They are, in many instances, the judgments which he delivered; and they are therefore more worthy of dependance than the notes which could have been taken by any uninterested writer, however great might be his accuracy and his talents. To several of the cases, allusions have been made in other works, particularly in Buller's Nisi Prius: but they are now given with more minuteness, and carry conviction more immediately to the mind of the reader, than in any other report of them which has appeared.

To enable the public to judge of the manner in which the work is executed, and to shew how careful and vigilant the system of English jurisprudence is in every particular which concerns the important duties of a juryman, we shall transcribe the Report of *Norman* against *Beamont*, C. P. M. 18 Geo. 2. in which case a verdict was set aside, because one of the jurymen was not returned on the Nisi Prius panel, but answered to the name of a person who was.

'NORMAN *against* BEAMONT.

'The cause was tried at the last Suffolk assizes, and one Richard Shepherd was sworn upon the jury who gave a verdict for the plaintiff, damages 1s. It was an action of trespass quare clausum fregit; and the Judge certified that the trespass was voluntary and malicious, which

which shewed plainly that he was not dissatisfied * with the verdict. But upon an affidavit of Shepherd himself that he was not returned upon the nisi prius panel, and that he answered to the name of Richard Geater a person returned on the panel, we had made a rule nisi † for a new trial, and a rule against Shepherd to shew cause why an attachment ‡ should not go against him, as he knew that he was not returned and yet suffered himself to be sworn on the jury, and as it looked like a trick in him in order to set aside the verdict if it should be given against his friend.

'And now Prime Serjt. shewed cause against the rule; and

'Leeds Serjt. shewed cause for Shepherd.

'Prime Serjt. insisted that the Court could take no notice of any thing but what appeared on the record; and that as all appeared to be right on the record, the Court could not take notice of any thing that appeared in the affidavits. And he cited a case of Bolman *v.* Crowle in *B. R.* where the defendant paid 24l. 10s. in court, upon which a rule was obtained according to the course of that court that it should be struck out of the declaration, but it seems it is never struck out: but the rule is produced at the trial, and then if the jury do not give more damages for the plaintiff than the money which is paid in, the verdict is always given for the defendant: but if the jury are of opinion to find more, they only give a verdict for the overplus. But in that case though the plaintiff had taken the money out of court, yet the rule not being produced at the trial the jury gave a verdict for the plaintiff for 24l. 17s. 6d. in which the 24l. 10s. was agreed to be included: but Prime said that upon a motion in *B. R.* for the defendant either that the plaintiff should refund the 24l. 10s. or that the verdict might be amended, the Court said they could not go out of the record, and therefore gave the defendant no relief. He insisted likewise that this objection was only matter of challenge and could not be taken advantage of after the verdict; and also that this was cured by the statute 32 Hen. 8. c. 30. s 1. ‖ And as it appeared that this was not a verdict against evidence, but plainly to the satisfaction of the Judge, he hoped that the Court would not strain a point to set aside this verdict.

'Leeds Serjt. read a second affidavit of Shepherd's, in which he swore that he was a young man and was never on a jury before; that

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' * But it has since been holden that if it appear on the trial that the trespass was committed after notice, and the jury give less than 40s. damages, the Judge is bound under the statute 8 & 9 W. 3. c. 11. s. 4. to certify that the trespass was wilful and malicious, in order to entitle the plaintiff to his full costs. Swinnerton *v.* Jarvis, E. 22 Geo. 3. C. B; and Reynold *v.* Edwards, 6 D. & E. 11.'

' † On Wednesday, October 24th, in the same term.'

' ‡ In the case of Wats *v.* Brains, Cro. Eliz. 779. several of the jury were fined and imprisoned for misconduct.'

' ‖ Which enacts that "if any issue be tried by the oath of twelve or more indifferent men, in any of the King's courts of record, then the justice or justices by whom judgment thereof ought to be given shall proceed and give judgment in the same," notwithstanding any mispleading &c.'

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he was returned as a juryman at that assizes on the crown side, and not knowing the difference was sworn in this nisi prius cause; and that by reason of a great noise in the court he thought he was the person who was called; and being called again in another cause the mistake was discovered; and he cleared himself from any imputation of having done what he did by design; so the rule was discharged as against him.

'Bootle Serjt. for the rule insisted that the statute 32 Hen. 8. did not at all affect this case; and relied very much on the statute 3 Geo. 2. c. 25 *, which says that twelve of those who are returned shall be sworn, and that they shall try the cause. And he cited the case of Fines *v.* North, Sir Wm. Jon. 302. Mich. 8 Car. 1. where upon error from a judgment in B. C., the error assigned was that but 23 were returned on the venire, and the habeas corpora was awarded against those 23 and one Lambert, and eleven and Lambert were sworn and found for the plaintiff; and the whole Court held that this was ill and not helped by any statute, because one was sworn who was not returned by the sheriff, and they reversed the judgment.

'*We were all of opiniou* that the statute 32 Hen. 8. did not extend to the present case, nor to any mistakes in the jury process; for if it did, there had been no occasion for making the statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 13 †; the words of which statute likewise shew that the present mistake was such an one as was not proper to be remedied.

'We were of opinion likewise that this could be no cause of challenge. It could not be a challenge to the array, for there was no objection to the array; nor to the poll, for there was no objection to Richard Geater the person returned. But this was an extrinsic objection, not appearing on the face of the poll. A challenge to a

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'* The eighth section directs sheriffs &c. to annex to the venire facias a panel of not less than 48 or more than 72 jurors, containing their christian aad surnames, additions and places of abode, &c. Then the 11th section enacts that the name of each of those persons shall be written on a distinct piece of paper and put into a box, and shall be drawn &c. "until 12 persons be drawn who shall appear, and after all causes of challenge shall be allowed as fair and indifferent: *and the said 12 persons so first* drawn and appearing, and approved as indifferent, *their names being marked in the panel*, and they being sworn, shall be the jury to try the said cause" &c.'

'† The second section of that statute enacts that no judgment shall be stayed or reversed "by reason that the venire facias, habeas corpora, or distringas, is awarded to a wrong officer upon any insufficient suggestion; or by reason the visne is in some part misawarded or sued out of more places or of fewer places than it ought to be, so as some one place be right named; or by reason that any of the jury which tried the said issue is misnamed, either in the surname or addition, in any of the said writs, or in any return upon any of the said writs, *so as upon examination it be proved to be the same man that was meant to be returned;* or by reason that there is no return upon any of the said writs, so as a panel of the names of jurors be returned and annexed to the said writ," &c.'

juryman supposes him capable of serving on the jury if the objection be answered: but Richard Shepherd was no juryman at all. And as to the matter not appearing on the record, we said that in cases of this sort where the objection could not appear on the record we always admitted of affidavits; as in respect to a misbehaviour of any of the jury, or any declaration made by any of them * either before or after the verdict to shew that a juryman was partial. And we thought that the statute 21 Jac. 1 c. 13. and 3 Geo. 2. c. 25. very much strengthened the plaintiff's objection.

'My Brother Abney said that Blackmore's case, 8 Co. 156. plainly shewed that this was a mistake not amendable even after verdict.

'And I cited the case of Hassett *v.* Payne, Cro. Eliz. 256. M. 33 & 34 Eliz. *B. R.* where on an attaint it appeared that one George Ellinger was returned on the venire, but one Gregory Ellinger was named in the habeas corpora and returned by that name and sworn on the jury; and it was holden by the whole Court that no attaint would lie, because there was no verdict, the trial being but by eleven.

'We were therefore all of opinion that the rule ought to be made absolute for setting aside the verdict, but we had a doubt about the costs. We thought it hard that either the plaintiff or the defendant should pay the costs, because neither of them was in any fault. We proposed that the costs should abide the event of the next trial; but the defendant would not consent to it, and we thought that we could not make such a rule unless both the parties consented. We desired that the case of Phillips *v.* Fowler †, E. 9 Geo. 2. in this court might be looked into to see what the Court did in that case in respect to costs, where they set aside the verdict for a very great misbehaviour in the jury, and we found upon inquiry that the Court at first made a rule for setting aside the verdict upon the defendant's paying the costs, but that afterwards the Court made a rule that the jury, who had grossly misbehaved themselves, should pay the costs on both sides.

'At last upon mature consideration we made the rule absolute for a new trial without costs on either side ‡.

——'*N.* My Brother Burnett said he thought that in this case even at common law there ought to have been a venire facias de novo, according to the old method of proceeding before these motions for new trials, and that in that case there would have been no costs; which was a further reason for our not directing any costs to be paid in the present case ‖.'

'* But the Court will not now receive the affidavit of a juror respecting the misconduct of the jurymen, Vasie *v.* Delaval, 1 D. & E. 11; though formerly such affidavits were received, Parr *v.* Seames, Barnes 438; and Phillips *v.* Fowler, *ib.* 441. the case above alluded to.

'† Com. Rep. 525; and Barnes 441. where a verdict was set aside because the jury had cast lots.'

'‡ In Hale *v.* Cove, 1 Str. 642, where the Court set aside the verdict on account of the misconduct of the jurymen, they ordered the costs to abide the event of the new trial.'

'‖ See the next case Wray *v.* Thorn.'

As we do not very frequently trespass on the patience of our readers by making large extracts from law books; and as we do not often meet with a work possessing so many recommendations to public notice as the present; we shall hope to be excused for the length of the preceding quotation, and to be farther allowed to introduce the case of *Wray* against *Thorn*, C. P. M. 18 Geo. 2. which immediately follows in the volume the case of *Norman* against *Beamont*, and has a close connection with it in point of subject. In this latter case, the Court refused to set aside a verdict and to grant a new trial, because one of the jurors was named *Henry* in the venire, the habeas corpora, and the postea, when his real Christian name was *Harry*.

'WRAY *against* THORN and HANCOCK.

'This was an action of trespass quare clausum fregit, &c.

'The defendant justified under a right of way; and the plaiutiff replied extra viam, on which the issue was joined, and a view had, and a verdict for the plaintiff, damages 1s.; and it was not pretended that it was a verdict against evidence. But Henry Luppincott of Alverdiscot, Esq. was returned on the venire by the name of Henry, and he is so named on the habeas corpora, the panel, and the postea, (there being a tales); and he was one of the viewers. But an affidavit was produed of John Thorn and Lewis Wise, in which Thorn swore that his right christian name was Harry; and Wise that he had taken a copy of the register, by which it appears that he was baptized by the name of Harry.

'A motion had been made* by Hussey Serjt. to set aside the verdict; and he cited Cro. Eliz. 222. Fermor *v.* Dorrington; Cro. Jac. 116. Blunt and Farley *v.* Snedston; Cro. Car. 202. Downs *v.* Winterflood; and 5 Co. 42. The Countess of Rutland's case. We were inclinable to make it good if possible, but made a rule nisi that the matter might be thoroughly spoken to and considered. And now Belfield Serjt. shewed cause against the rule.

'*I gave my opinion* in the following manner;

'This question can come only before a court for judgment in one of these four ways;

'By motion in arrest of judgment;

'By motion for an amendment;

'By motion for a new trial in this court; or

'By writ of error in a superior court.

'In order that I may be understood, I will in the first place state the present case. In the next place I will mention all the cases that I can find that seem to bear any resemblance to this. And in the last place I will give you my opinion on the present question.

'I then stated the case as before, and then proceeded to mention the cases in the books. The first case that I cited was Cro. Eliz. 57. Displyn *v.* Spratt, P. 29 Eliz. B. R. which was thus; Thomas Baker of D., was returned on the venire, in the distringas he was called Thomas Carter of D., and by that name sworn on the jury.

* On Wednesday October 24th in the same term.'

A motion

A motion was made in arrest of judgment, and a case cited where George Thompson was returned on the venire and Gregory Tompson was returned on the panel and sworn, and it was held to be a void verdict; for the Court said that there was a great deal of difference between a mistake in a christian name and a mistake in a surname; for a man may have two surnames but he can have but one christian name; but no judgment appears.

'In Cro. Eliz. 222. Fermor *v.* Dorrington, P. 33 Eliz. B. R. in an action for words, after verdict judgment was stayed, because Taverner was in the return to the venire, and Turnor in the distringas; and he attended and was sworn by the name of Turnor. A case was cited in the same case of Dousby *v.* Willott, where a juror was returned by the name of Gregory in the venire and in the distringas by the name of George, and he was sworn by that name, and judgment was arrested. Another case was cited out of the Exchequer, where one Mizael was returned on the venire, and in the distringas it was Michael; both these were surnames; one Michael was sworn on the jury, and judgment was stayed for this reason. In the principal case the Court at first doubted, because the variance was in the surname, for the reasons before given; but afterwards resolved that the judgment should be stayed.

'In Cro. Eliz. 256. Hassett *v.* Payne, M. 33 & 34 Eliz. B. R. in an attaint it appeared that one George was named in the return to the venire, and in the distringas he was named Gregory, and so sworn; and held *per totam Curiam* that no attaint would lie, because no verdict, the trial being but by eleven. In Cro. Eliz. 258. Cotton's case, the same term, in an action for words it was J. S. of Abbotsan, in the return to the venire, and in the distringas J. S. of Abbasan, and ordered to be amended after a verdict. And in the same term between Mortimer and Oger it was De Hust in the return to the venire and De Hurst in the distringas; and on a motion in arrest of judgment held to be well enough, and the plaintiff had his judgment. In 5 Co. 42. The Countess of Rutland's case, M. 34 & 35 Eliz. B. R. a motion was made in arrest of judgment because Robert Moore was returned on the venire, and he was so named in the distringas: but in the panel before the justices of Nisi Prius he was named Robert Mawre, and so he was named on the postea; and it was insisted that a stranger who was not returned was sworn on the jury: but, by the whole Court, if it can appear by examination that his right name was Robert Moore, so that he was well returned on the venire, and that the same man was returned and sworn, the postea may be amended. It was held otherwise in several cases there cited out of the Year-Books; but it was said in that case that now the law was that judgment should not be stayed, for that these discontinuances were aided by the stat. 32 Hen. 8. c. 30. and 18 Eliz. c. 14. But it was there said that even now if a juror be misnamed in the panel annexed to the venire, though he be rightly named in the subsequent process, it is not amendable, and that is was so held in Codwell's case *. M. 35 & 36 Eliz. B. R. It appeared in *that* case upon examination that it was the same man who was returned on the venire,

'* 5 Co. 42. *b.* and 43. *a.*'

and

and that his right name was Robert Moore; and for the reasons aforesaid by the opinion of the whole Court the postea was amended, and judgment given.

'In Danv. Abr. tit. "Amendment," p. 330. is the case of Hugo *v.* Payne, 39 Eliz. B. R. where Tippett the true name was returned on the venire, but in the habeas corpora and distringas he was named Typper; yet if he be sworn and try the issue by his right name, it shall be amended; and said that the same was adjudged in Marshall's case, 40 Eliz. B. R., and in the case of Arundel *v.* Blanchard, Mich. 13 Jac. 1. But in the case of Floyd *v.* Bethell, T. 13 Jac. 1. B. R. there also cited, in the distringas the juror was Ap Pell and one Ap Bell was sworn, and said that it could not be amended by the Court after the death of the sheriff; for it cannot be intended to be the same man, for they are different names in Wales where this trial was; but said that, if the sheriff who made the return had been living, he might have amended it. Several more cases are there cited; and in p. 331. where the mistake is in the surname; but if right in the return to the venire, the Court would amend it. In Cro. Jac. 116. M. 2 Jac. 1. B. R. in error from a judgment in B. R. the error assigned was the juror was named Constantinus in the return to the venire and in the distringas, but he was returned in the panel and sworn by the name of Constantius; and it was held to be a manifest error, and not amendable.

'All these cases were before the stat. 21 Jac. 1. c. 13. s. 2. And from these it appears that even before that statute, mistakes in the surname of a juryman were generally holden to be amendable, if the return to the venire were right.

'But the statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 13. has put the matter beyond all doubt in respect to surnames. The words are "no judgment shall be stayed or arrested after a verdict because any of the jury who tried the issue is misnamed either in the *surname* or addition in any of the jury process, or in any return thereupon, so as upon examination it appear to be the same person who was meant to be returned." So this statute has settled the point as to surnames, but has left the point as to christian names as it was before. Nor do I know that such mistakes are remedied by any of the subsequent statutes.

'But even as to christian names the cases are various both before and after this statute. In the cases already cited it seems to be held that mistakes in the christian name were not amendable. But in Codwell's case, 35 & 36 Eliz. B. R. 5 Co. 42. b. and 43. a., and which is called the case of Goldwell *v.* Parker, in Cro. Car. 203., in an appeal of maihem between Codwell and Parker verdict for the plaintiff; and moved in arrest of judgment that there was a variance between the return of the venire and the distringas and the postea in the name of a juryman. In the return to the venire he is named Palus Cheak, in the distringas and postea Paulus, by which name he was sworn; there judgment was arrested, because he was misnamed in the panel to the venire; but it was held that if he had been rightly named on the return to the venire, and wrong in the other process, it should have been amended on examination.

'If in the return to the venire a juror be called Pearse Thomas and so in the habeas corpora, but in the panel annexed to the habeas corpora he is called Peese Thomas, and is sworn by that name, and it appears upon examination that he was the same person that was returned; held to be amendable, though this was upon a writ of error. T. 42 El. B. R. Danv. Abr. tit. "Amendment," p. 330.

'These cases were before the statute. Since the statute, in the case of Rowe and Bond, *v.* Devys, M. 15 Car. 2. B. R. in Cro. Car. 563; Sir W. Jon. 448; and Danvers 330; in the return to the venire a juryman was named Samuel, and so in the distringas, but in the panel annexed he was called Daniel, and sworn by that name as appears by the record, and gave a verdict for the plaintiff; though this was not within the stat. 21 Jac. 1., yet it appearing upon the examination of the juror himself that he was the person returned, and that his right name was Samuel, and that there was no other person of that name in the parish, and by the examination of the sheriff and his clerk that it was the misprision of the clerk, who, though he had the distringas before him, wrote Daniel for Samuel in the panel; and the juror likewise swearing that, there being a great noise in the court when he was sworn, he answered supposing himself to be called by his right name of Samuel; the record was ordered to be amended, and the judgment was not stayed; and the Court held, though the statute 21 Jac. 1. extended only to surnames, and did not therefore help the present case, yet that this was amendable by the common law, and by the statute 8 Hen. 6. c. 12. as being only a misprision of the clerk.

'There is indeed a case in Cro. Car. 203., between Downs and Winterflood, M. 6. Car. 2. where this seems to be doubted: but that was in an attaint, and no judgment appears to be given. The case was thus; one of the jurors was returned by the name of Alexander Prescot; in the resummons, which is in the nature of a distringas, he was called Alexandrus Prescot, and was sworn by that name; the verdict of the petit jury was affirmed, and this was moved in arrest of judgment: the Court held clearly that this was not aided by the statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 13. But as the cases cited to arrest the judgment were where the mistake was in the return to the venire, and as it appeared there that the return to the first process was right, Alexander being the true name, and it appearing that he was the juror who was intended to be returned and sworn, the Court seemed rather inclined to think that the second process might be amended, but adjourned the consideration thereof.

'These are the most considerable cases that I can find, which seem to bear any resemblance to the present.

'And now I shall come to the consideration of the present case. It was truly said by the counsel for the plaintiff that we ought not to go out of the record (unless in respect to such matters as throw an imputation on the jury and cannot appear on the record itself, concerning which I have been more particular in the case of Norman *v.* Beamont * in this term, so I need not repeat what I there said); and

'* See the preceding case.'

they

they cited the case of Arundel *v.* Arundel, Cro. Jac. 12; and Dyer 163. b. pl. 56. which are full to this purpose.

'Now the record here being right, and no variances appearing thereupon, there is no occasion for any amendment, nor can the judgment be reversed on a writ of error, and for the same reason the judgment cannot be arrested: whereas in all the cases cited the variance appeared on the record: and therefore unless the record were amended, the judgment ought to have been arrested, or it would have been reversed on a writ of error. The only question therefore in every one of them was whether the record should be amended.

'So all the cases were very different from the present, in which there can be but one question, whether by reason of a matter not appearing on record but laid before the Court by affidavit, we shall set aside the verdict and grant a new trial. And I think it would be very unjust to grant a new trial in the present case, since there is no objection to the verdict itself, since the objection does not appear upon the record, and since it appears by the affidavit which makes out the objection, that the juryman who was sworn on the jury and tried the cause was the person who was summoned and returned and intended to be a juror in the cause, which is the very reason relied on in the statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 13. and in all the cases where amendments have been ordered.

'I did not lay much stress upon the answer which was given by the counsel for the plaintiff, that a man might have two christian names, one at his baptism and another at his confirmation; but for the reasons aforesaid I was of opinion that the rule ought to be discharged.

'My Brothers Abney and Burnett were both of the same opinion. They thought that Henry and Harry might be taken to be one and the same name. That, as granting new trials was merely in the discretion of the Court, they thought this was such a case that the Court ought not to set aside the verdict, since it was agreed to be a just verdict, and since no variance appeared on the record, and there was not any imputation upon any of the jury.

'And Brother Burnett said that the only question in this cause was, whether, when Courts always go as far as they can to support a verdict, we should in this case set aside a verdict contrary to justice and to the reason of all the cases that had been cited. He likewise cited Arundel's case, Hob. 64, where Lisney in the habeas corpora was made Listney to agree with the venire, though the true name was Lisney, because they sound so like. He also cited some other cases where Baskervill and Baskerfield *, Stoke and Stokes, Hastin and Hastings, Mac Kair and Kair, had been holden to be the same names.

'And *per Curiam*, the rule was discharged †.

'* Vid. 2 Rol. Rep. 168.'

'† In R. *v.* Roberts, 2 Str. 1214. on a trial at bar of a traverse to an inquisition of lunacy, the Court ordered (against the defendant's consent) the christian name of one of the jurymen to be altered from Henry to Harry, on his acknowleging that he was the person summoned.'

'——*N.* This case is very different from the case of Norman *v.* Beamont*, for there a person was sworn upon the jury by mistake who was never summoned or returned, in the room of one who was summoned and returned.'

We were particularly gratified by the judgment delivered in the great and well-known case of *Omichund* against *Barker*; in which Lord Chancellor Hardwicke desired the assistance of the Chief Justices of the King's Bench and of the Common Pleas, and of the Chief Baron of the Exchequer. It was there decided, in opposition to the authority of Sir Edward Coke, that the depositions of witnesses professing the Gentoo religion, who had been sworn according to the ceremonies of that religion, taken under a commission out of Chancery, were admissible in evidence. The strong and masculine sense, the sound learning and varied information, and the liberality, of the Chief Justice, appear no where to greater advantage than on this occasion.—The curious nature of the subject discussed, and the splendid abilities of the Counsel who argued and of the Judges who determined the question, entitle it to the utmost attention.

Mr. Durnford has much improved this publication by the addition of pertinent and applicable notes; pointing out in what particulars, prior and subsequent decisions agree with or differ from the cases contained in the volume. We consider the work as possessing great merit, and forming a valuable accession to the library of every professional man; and the editor is entitled to no slight praise for the accurate and perfect form in which he has presented it to the world. S.R.

ART. VIII. *Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c.* selected from the Correspondence of the Bath and West of England Society, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Vol. IX. 8vo. pp. 348. 6s. 6d. Boards. Dilly. 1799.

TILL "*grim-visaged war has smooth'd his wrinkled front*," the pursuits of Agriculture and rural improvement must endure some disadvantages: but to the agitations of the present political struggle, we cannot, with the Secretary to the Bath Society, attribute the alleged falling off in their correspondence. The communications from all quarters to the Board of Agriculture, while they evince the general zeal for internal improvement, must serve to diminish the streams by which provincial establishments were formerly supplied; and it is certain that at no period have agricultural publications been more numerous than

* The preceding case.'

they

they are at present. While, therefore, we cannot admit the reason adduced for the materials being less abundant than usual, out of which the present volume is composed, we are happy in seeing a fresh proof of the commendable exertions of this respectable and public spirited society; and in having a farther opportunity of paying our compliments to its judicious Secretary, Mr. Matthews; who, though he calls himself an 'humble writer,' must not be passed without some tribute of praise. Of his Introduction, containing an 'Account of various topics of experiment and observation, which have engaged the attention of the Society, since the publication of the last volume', we shall repeat what we said of his essay prefixed to the former volume; that it ought to have been printed in a distinct pamphlet, for the sake of being more generally circulated. In this summary, he has selected and compressed with judgment, explained with clearness, and reasoned with diffidence and politeness, though we cannot add that he in every part carries conviction to our minds.—Before we dismiss this Introduction, we shall have occasion to discuss a subject on which we differ considerably from Mr. M. and the Bath Society; and, as it is of public importance, we chearfully avail ourselves of the opportunity here afforded of enlarging our remarks.

Taking it as an established fact that there is an increase of population in the kingdom, occasioning an increasing call for the necessaries of human life, Mr. Matthews invites gentlemen of landed property to consider, '*how their possessions may be rendered the most productive of human subsistence, and the most numerous instances of human comfort?*' This general question he afterward branches into the following particular heads of inquiry: 1st, Whether the nearest lands, or those attached to the mansion, be divided to the greatest possible advantage, and applied to their most productive and proper uses? 2dly, Whether the *distant farms* be so divided and apportioned into large and middle-sized, as to be most suitable to the general state or gradation of farms in the district; and especially whether a small pasture or grazing farm may not be advantageously parted off from a large one: so that, by only building a cheap farm-house, little bigger than a cottage, room may be made for another useful farmer; a man who, by close attention to that kind and degree of husbandry which can be managed with a small capital, may turn such portion of ground to an improved account, and be at the same time subservient to the greater interests of the community, in raising an additional number of young pigs, the various kinds of poultry, stocks of bees, &c.? Those of our gentry who sincerely wish well to their

country will attend to this hint; since the price of the necessaries of life does not depend merely on the quantity brought to market, but also on the manner in which the market is supplied; whether by only one or two great farmers, or also by several little agriculturists. Great farmers will not be satisfied with the little gains which arise from little things: but, when there is a variety of capital, gain is sought by an attention to all the varieties of produce. The present state of markets calls for what Mr. M. is so solicitous of seeing, a greater number of small farms.—3dly, Whether the larger farms be duly proportioned, and provisions in leases be wisely inserted to keep them so, as to *pasture* and *arable land*? 4thly, Whether any part or parts of such farms be easily susceptible of the advantage of watering, for the improvement of meadows? 5thly, Whether the important article of *wood plantation* has been sufficiently considered on every large farm? and, 6thly, Whether adequate care be taken, in leasing farms, to prefer tenants who are disposed to *neatness* in the general management of lands; to encourage such by particular commendations; and to admonish the slovenly and negligent, when they are found inattentive to their *duty*?

This last query, which glances at the *slovenly farmers*, is naturally followed by the mention of two grievances or supposed grievances, which are said to generate this disreputable class of agriculturists, viz. the conversion of contiguous small farms into a large one, and the immoderate increase of rents. Mr. M.'s remarks on the latter subject should be well weighed by the proprietors of land; who are sometimes tempted, by offers of an over-high rent, to lease their estates to adventurous farmers; and these men, calculating on more gain than the regular system of husbandry can yield, have recourse to immoderate cropping, and, through dishonesty or want of judgment, often ruin both themselves and the land which they occupy.

Mr. Matthews next adverts to the topics of *Inclosure* and *Tithes*; but these must not now detain us. We shall content ourselves with referring them, and the other subjects discussed in this Introduction, to those to whom they are addressed; persuaded, with this writer, that 'a radical knowlege of the *true principles of general plenty, population, and content*, in the country districts through the nation, will best qualify country gentlemen to act in parliament with success.'

The remainder of this Introduction is occupied by the subject of *Live Stock*; and Mr. M. tells us that the improvement of general skill in this article has been an important object with the Bath Society. He observes that 'it is now become a great rational question, *What race of neat cattle, sheep, and even*

even swine, are to be considered, or by what degrees of admixture they may be made, the most profitable for a general supply of animal food?' He not only states the question, but ably assists in its solution: but here again we must not follow him in detail. We shall only give his account of what is called *kindlyness* in neat cattle. 'The smaller and finer the head and neck, the finer and clearer the horn, the more lively the eye, the cleaner and more delicate the mouth and nose, the straiter the back, the deeper the body, the smaller the bone below the knee, the thinner and looser the skin, the finer the hair, &c. the greater is the probability of expeditious and profitable fattening.'

Towards the conclusion of this essay, Mr. M. notices our remarks on his Introduction to the former volume of Bath Papers; and, in the name of many members of the Society, he protests against an opinion which we gave respecting the reservation, in cases of inclosure, of a wide space for the public roads. This opinion, in consequence of the objections of so respectable a Society, we have attentively re-considered; but we are not induced in any degree to abandon it.

The width of our public roads through old inclosed districts is certainly not sufficiently ample in many places: where the evil cannot be remedied, however, without incurring a very heavy expence, it must be endured: but in new cases of inclosure, it should be carefully prevented. All those who have given any attention to the subject of *roads* know that such parts of them as are narrow, and overshadowed with trees and hedges, require beyond all comparison more repair than those parts which run over commons, and open situations, where the action of the sun and air is uninterrupted. So obvious a fact ought not to be disregarded. Besides, when the doctrine of individual appropriation is about to be rendered operative in the inclosure of what has been common and undivided, sufficient care should always be taken of the public; and too large rather than too small a space should be reserved, over which the highways are to be carried. When avarice has grasped every inch, except what is pronounced necessary for a public road, it will be too late to make the discovery that a greater width ought to have been reserved. We were surprized to find Mr. Matthews asserting that 'the common modern allowance of forty feet should seem to be abundantly sufficient, for all useful purposes.' This notion, we know, has been taken up and maintained by some gentlemen; and our former and present remarks are designed to combat a principle, which posterity will have reason to reprobate, if it be generally adopted in inclosure schemes. A road staked out forty feet wide will lose much of that width after banks are made, hedges planted and grown to

maturity, and the dirt of the road has been thrown up on the sides. In a few years, perhaps it will not be thirty four feet wide, and even this space will be so shadowed as to be almost constantly wet. If the actual road to be sustained by gravel, or stone, for the passage of carriages, needs not to be more than thirty feet wide, (except near large towns,) we contend that the width from hedge to hedge should at least be double this, if we would diminish the consumption of labour and materials in the sustentation of our public roads, and make travelling on them pleasant. The green ribband or border, which we formerly mentioned, would greatly add to their beauty; and by giving to commissioners a power of preventing all nuisances or encroachments on them, there would always be a free circulation of air to exhale moisture; as also a pleasant horse and summer road. It would be preferable, in our opinion, to leave a green strip of common along the highway side, to be depastured by the poor traveller's ass, or by the higler's little horse, than to allow individuals in their allotments of commons to trench too much on the comfort and accommodation of the public.

We have no interest to serve, nor any spleen to gratify, by these remarks. We offer them from the purest desire of having the beauty as well as the productiveness of the kingdom considered in Inclosure Bills. A few feet or yards of waste land can be no object when the inclosures are marking out. Let the public be generously treated; and let us not be niggards in the article of roads; for we may be assured that the value of inclosures will be increased by a noble amplitude of highway. Let it not be held up as an established doctrine, that forty feet of width from hedge to hedge is *abundantly sufficient**.

We must now leave this subject, to attend to the Letters and Papers of which the present volume is composed.

The first article exhibits *a Series of Experiments in the Culture of Potatoes*, with Remarks on the same, and on the general Culture of this valuable Root. By the Rev. Alexander Campbell, Minister of Kilcanmonell in Argyleshire.—For the practice of this gentleman in this species of culture, we must refer to the paper itself; which evinces great attention in making experiments. It is here laid down as a principle that 'the productiveness of potatoes is probably not occasioned by the weight or quantity of the sets planted, but by their having that number of round and perfect growths, which the soil they feed in can bring to perfection.'

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* *Sixty feet* is the width mentioned for high roads, and *forty* for private roads, in *the General Road Act*.

Account

Account of the superior Advantages of drilling Corn. By Mr. John Exter, of Pilton, Devon, rewarded by the Society with ten guineas in plate.—According to these experiments, which appear to have been very fairly made, the new mode of management is preferable to the old. The *advantages of the Drill Husbandry* over the Broad-cast are stated to be 1st, A saving of half the seed corn; 2d, A more regular and certain growth of that seed; 3d, Assisting the growth of the crop by pulverizing the soil and destroying weeds; 4th, Producing a larger and better crop; 5th, Harvested with less expence and with greater certainty; and, 6th, The soil is left in a better state for future crops.

The *disadvantages of drill husbandry* are said to be, 1st, The difficulty of finding a person acquainted with the use of the machine. [Perhaps Mr. E. should have said, the difficulty of making servants, when on the soil, attend properly to the machine.] 2d, The soil must be well prepared to admit it. 3d, The crop is too thinly sown. 4th, Harvested later than broad-cast crops. 5th, Clover succeeds not well with it. 6th, Oats produce rank and coarse straw, not good food for cattle. To each of these objections, Mr. E. gives what he deems a satisfactory reply; though he afterward seems to admit the validity of the first objection, by confessing that, if he had not at first gone through all the minutiæ of the process himself, drilling alone would have been the work of one season.—On the whole, he seems to manifest the advantages of the new husbandry, and his paper should be read by those who are prejudiced against that system.

The first part of the next article, from the Rev. H. J. Close of Hordle near Lymington, (who appears to have instituted a kind of agricultural school,) is a continuation of the same subject. In the true John-Bull-style, he offers a considerable bett (not less than 1000 l.) in favour of the drill compared with the Broad-cast husbandry, to be decided by fair experiments. At the same time, however, we must observe that he declares his abhorrence of gaming, and only uses this mode of arguing as one which comes home to the feelings of Englishmen, to express his full persuasion of the superiority of the drilling process; which he calculates, if universally adopted, would be an annual saving to the country, in seed-corn alone, of about 8,000,000 bushels of wheat, 3,000,000 bushels of barley, 1,000,000 bushels of rye, 4,000,000 bushels of oats, and 1,000,000 bushels of beans and pease.

The remainder of this paper contains an account of drilled turnips: as also of what is called *the half husbandry*, every other ridge in a field being cropped with wheat, and the intermediate

diate ridges planted with potatoes; and in the following year, changing the crops. The produce was abundant; and, with care, this kind of husbandry may answer.

The succeeding paper comes from the same author, and relates the advantages which he found attached to the cultivation of the *Mazagan Bean.*

Art. 5. is a Letter from Benj. Hobhouse, Esq. M.P. on *rendering Inclosure Bills more simple and less expensive; and to obviate in some degree the want of a General Bill.*—Mr. H. states it as the opinion of many, that Sir John Sinclair's motion for a General Inclosure Act was crushed by the powerful influence of those, for the loss of whose fees no compensation was provided. Assuming this as a fact, and believing the impossibility of obtaining a general law at present, Mr. Hobhouse proposes that a motion be made in Parliament for the reduction of the fees of office, (two-thirds of them, or any other proportion of them, in all cases in which the land to be inclosed shall be under a certain value,) in soliciting and passing Inclosure-bills. He apprehends that an acquiescence in such a measure would not diminish the amount of the fees, because, by such an inducement being held out, there would be more applications to Parliament for leave to inclose. This suggestion proceeds unquestionably from a very patriotic principle: but it is a sort of half measure to which we cannot be very partial, and to which Mr. Hobhouse's arguments would fail of giving effect.

Farther Reflections on Commutation for Tithes. By Mr. Price. In this well-written essay in support of an opinion formerly given on this subject, Mr. Price judiciously considers the vast increment of the poor's rates as an evidence that the labouring poor are underpaid; and that they obtain from the parish what they ought to receive from the hand of their masters.

On Art. 7. respecting *the Culture of Furze as winter Food for Horses*, by John Harvey Pierce, Esq. we say nothing. The succeeding paper contains an account of the *Turnip Cabbage*, (a more useful vegetable than furze,) with directions for its cultivation; by the Rev. Thomas Broughton.

On the *Cultivation of Potatoes from the Rind.* By the Rev. Edward Whittle.—This gentleman asserts that, in experiments which he made, there was no difference in the produce, whether the rows were planted *with the rind*, with *whole potatoes*, or with *pieces* cut in the usual way. If this be so, it is a waste of seed to plant whole potatoes.

A Series of Experiments respecting Smut in Wheat: in a Letter from James Jennings, Esq. As far as these experiments go, the vitriolic acid diluted with water, in the proportion of one to thirty, proved to be a good mixture for steeping wheat,

in order to prevent the disease well known to farmers by the name of *smut*. If this be thoroughly ascertained, it is an important discovery: but we must not be too credulous. Farther trials are necessary.

The next paper is on sundry Topics, by Mr. John Feltham: a chit-chat letter; and the following is a description (with a plate) of a Draining Plough, by E. L. Loveden, Esq.

Farther Practical Remarks on the Nature of Sheep and Wool, and on the Disorders of Sheep, &c. By Mr. J. Collins, of Devizes.—This communication merits perusal, but does not admit of abridgment. It is the result of attentive observation combined with judgment.

A short Account of the long Earth-Worm, which preys on the Roots of Wheat Plants. By Mr. Francis Furber.

A Botanical Paper then ensues, which contains an Account of the principal *English Grasses*, with descriptions of their respective excellencies and defects in regard to agricultural uses. By Mr. Sole.—This catalogue, specifying 108 varieties, will be very useful to those who wish to know the different English grasses: of which this judicious botanist assigns to the *Poa Pratensis*, or Great Meadow-Grass, the noblest rank.—Two plates are given with this paper, containing 12 engraved specimens of the most valuable meadow-grasses.

Though we did not expect an essay on a Medical subject among the papers of an agricultural society, we should congratulate ourselves and the public on meeting any where with so much good sense and consolatory information, as Dr. A. Fothergill has here exhibited in treating of *The Nature of the Disease occasioned by the Bite of a Mad Dog*. This is one of the most terrific and afflicting maladies to which human nature is subject: but inquiries of this nature will serve (we hope) to make it better understood, and may lead to the application of an effectual remedy. Dr. F.'s examination is truly philosophic; and the maxim which he takes as his motto, *Principiis obsta, sero medicina paratur*, should be well considered in the prevention of the malady attendant on the bite of a mad-dog. Many curious facts are contained in this paper, which our limits prevent us from noticing: but the ingenious author has clearly shewn why the boasted medicines hitherto employed have proved ineffectual, and he has suggested a more probable method of prevention and cure. He considers 'Hydrophobia as a species of spasmodic *angina*, produced by a specific contagion, which exerts its influence first on the injured part, and afterward on the organ of deglutition.' The indications of cure he states to be, '1st, to dissolve the fatal connection between the injured part and the organ of deglutition. 2dly, to calm

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the violent spasms, and soothe the nervous system; and, 3dly, to support the strength and invigorate the whole frame.'

Dr. F. recommends that the part bitten should be sucked: which method is as safe as it is simple. If the poison be supposed to have taken any effect, he advises (in agreement with most other medical men) that the part affected should be cut out, and the wound cauterized, to prevent the irritation being propagated to the throat; applying also a sharp blister to the throat from ear to ear. In the 2d place, he would dissolve, in a pint of olive oil, half an ounce of camphire, and have the whole body diligently rubbed with it before a gentle fire: or he would plunge the patient into an entire bath of warm olive oil, if it could be procured, as a means of exciting a copious perspiration: after this, in the 3d place, he would give the patient the most nutritious aliment.

Description of a Pair of Harrows and a Drag. By Mr. Wynne.

Account of a Furrow Roller and new Drag. By Wm. W. Pinchard, Esq.

Queries on the Subject of Vegetation proposed by the Board of Agriculture, and mostly answered by Mr. Thomas Parsons, a Member of the Bath Society.—These queries extend to a variety of particulars, arranged under general heads, and then subdivided; so that we can only refer the inquisitive to the paper itself.

An Account of Inquiries respecting the Subject of Population. By Sir John Call, Bart. M. P.—Ready as we are to admit the fact that our population surpasses the usual estimate, we cannot think with Sir John Call that it is indicated by the increased price of corn. Neither is the fact pointed out by the greater demand for fire-wood: which only shews that the lower people are more luxurious. If bread-corn were to fall in price from 30l. to 10l. *per* load of forty bushels, would Sir John think that our population was diminished? However the introduction of inoculation, and other causes, may have favoured population, we cannot adduce the dearness of corn as a proof that our numbers are increased. Circumstances necessarily concomitant on a state of war, such as great purchases of corn and fat cattle for the support of large fleets and armies, must tend to raise the price of these commodities in the public market, even while the operations of war are accelerating the waste of human life. It must therefore be extremely fallacious to infer the state of population from the price of provisions.—We do not deny the fact of an increase of numbers, but are rather disposed to believe it; yet we must observe that it is not to be hastily deduced from one or two circumstances, nor from the confined observations of any individual. In a general view of the subject,

ject, some things will be found propitious, others adverse, to population.

Sir John Call supposes that, from the year 1770 to the year 1788, the population of Great Britain increased from 8 to 9 millions; and from 1788 to 1797, to ten millions. He notices the vast quantity of imported grain in late years, and points out the propriety of remedying the evil by increased improvements in agriculture, principally by inclosures and their cultivation. He calculates that 160,000 additional acres must be brought into tillage, in order to make our growth equal our consumption: but, in a state of warfare, there is no accurate reasoning on this subject.

Account of the peculiar Nature, Use, and Value of the Turnip-rooted Cabbage, with the best Mode of its Cultivation, founded on long Experience. By Mr. Lewis Tugwell.—Though, says Mr. T. this plant has been mostly considered as an *off-scouring* article, there is not one in the whole range of plants cultivated for the support of farming stock, which is of equal importance. Surely, then, our *condescension* has not been very great in adopting the culture of it, as a permanent and stable feed for sheep in severe seasons and critical situations. Its eulogy is here sung, and its mode of culture specified: but the paper might have been shorter.

The 22d article contains *The Farmer's, Grazier's, and Butcher's Ready-Reckoner*; a short Table, by which the Weight of Stock, according to the different Usages in England, can be ascertained, and the value of Stock of any Size, with the Difference, at once discovered. By the Right Hon. Lord Somerville.—This useful compendium is printed in a convenient size for the pocket, and may be purchased at the Society's rooms.

In two Letters, from Mr. John Wagstaff, *on useful Modes of Planting, and on Prevention of Smut*, &c. &c. the writer continues to recommend the washing of seed-corn in pure water, as the desideratum of ages for the cure of smut: but we have reason for believing that it will not universally succeed. Mr. W. now suggests that the smut-powder may be wafted by the wind.

Some Observations on the Depredations of Insects on Fruit-Trees. By Mr. John Haskings, a Country Gardener.—An insect is here mentioned which is destructive of the blossoms of apple-trees, and the *tom-tit* is stated to be the enemy of this insect: hence the utility of *tom-tits* in orchards.

On the Value of Ruta Baga (preferred to the Turnip-rooted Cabbage) *compared with other Turnips*; and a Proposition for instructing young Men in the New Husbandry. By the Rev. H. J. Close.—This gentleman proposes to take 8 pupils

on terms which are specified in an Advertisement prefixed to the volume.

Account of the Premiums and Bounties given by the Bath and West of England Society, for the Encouragement of the various Objects of the Institution, from its Commencement to the present Time.—This should have been given as an Appendix.

Articles 27, 28, and 29, relate to the *Potatoe Culture*. In the first, Mr. Sweet states the advantage of planting small potatoes; in the second, Mr. Bartley details experiments of raising potatoes from seed, with observations tending to encourage such experiments (Mr. B. means to give the world a separate publication on this subject); in the third, Mr. Wickins mentions an easy method of manuring potatoes, and farther recommends the feeding them off with hogs, by folding them as sheep are folded on turnips.

Account of a Crop of Cabbage, for which a Premium was awarded. By Dr. Parry, of Bath. The weight of the cabbages *per* acre was 32 tons, 17 cwt.

Statement of an experimental Process of Manufacture, to ascertain the Value of English Wool from Sheep of a Spanish Mixture. By Mr. Joyce.—The best cloth made from this wool was found, on inspection by a Committee, to be worth 15s. 6d. *per* yard; the second sort, 12s.

The last article is *A Report concerning the public Trial of Ploughs*, near Piper's-Inn, in October 1798.

Thus have we particularly noticed the contents of the volume before us; which exhibits a pleasing instance of the attention given to subjects of national importance. If some of the papers be trifling, their inferiority is compensated by the real excellence of others; and we should not do our duty in making our report, without bearing testimony to the general utility of this Institution. Mo-y.

ART. IX. *A Companion and useful Guide to the Beauties of Scotland*, to the Lakes of Westmoreland, Cumberland, and Lancashire, and to the Curiosities in the District of Craven, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. To which is added a more particular Description of Scotland, especially that Part of it called the Highlands. By the Hon. Mrs. Murray, of Kensington. 8vo. pp. 400. 7s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1799.

THE perusal of this work has afforded us considerable pleasure, and we trust that we shall be able to impart to our readers some of the satisfaction which we have experienced. The fair writer needs not plead her sex to entitle her to attention, much less to mercy; and the praise which we bestow on her performance, justly and willingly, must not be considered

dered as indulgence to a weakness which we have been unable to discover; nor as granted in consequence of her deprecating that censure, which in our opinion she by no means deserves. Her humility, however, enhances her merits.

Mrs. Murray observes, in her preface, that she writes because she thinks that her guide will be really useful to those who may follow her steps through Scotland, and to the lakes of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire, by informing them of such objects as are worthy of notice; and at the same time acquainting them where, and by what means, they can attain a view of them in the safest and most comfortable manner. This purpose she has fully accomplished, by pointing out the distances from place to place, and by mentioning the inns, whether good or bad; not omitting the state of the roads, distinguishing such as are fit for a carriage, and those on which it cannot go with safety, &c.—In addition to these circumstances, which form the useful part of the work and constitute the duty of a guide, Mrs. M. enlivens her narrative with animated and picturesque description, and with amusing anecdotes. Her objects are, 1st, to furnish an useful vade-mecum to travellers; which is done in less than one hundred pages: 2dly, which is the most difficult and the most entertaining part of the volume, to give a minute and just description of those natural Beauties in the Highlands of Scotland, with which, for the following reasons, she conceives herself to be better acquainted than most other individuals:

'I was alone, nor did I limit myself as to time. I took great pains to see every thing worth seeing; and perhaps had better opportunities, than most other travellers, of exploring almost every famous glen, mountain pass, and cataract, by having a great many good and kind friends and relations by marriage, in Perthshire, and other parts of the Highlands; whose hospitality and kindness are stampt upon my heart, and will not be forgotten by my pen, when I describe the country.'

We shall dismiss the first part of the work, with observing that the directions given in it are judicious; and that many of the remarks are, to our knowlege (for we are not unacquainted with the country through which the author passed,) just and well-founded.—No one who has travelled can doubt the propriety of the advice conveyed in the following passage:

'If you mean to travel for pleasure, and are willing to be safe, make a resolution, (and keep to it strictly) *never* to be out after dark. If you will adhere to my plan, and be early in a morning in your chaise, you may see each day's portion of beauty, and have daylight to lodge you safe, in your intended quarters, unless some unforeseen delay should occur.'

From

From Longtown, where the descriptive part of the work commences, Mrs. Murray continues her journey to Langholm, through part of Eskdale, Ewesdale, and Tiviotdale, to a beautiful part of Tweed-dale, which she represents in the most glowing colours. The pleasure which she derives from viewing the pure charms of nature is so great, and is expressed in such warm and natural terms, that it is impossible not to partake, in the perusal, of the satisfaction which she enjoyed in her route.

'I had been wonderfully pleased with Eskdale, Ewesdale, and Tiviotdale; but I cannot describe my sensations of delight, when I came in sight of that part of Tweed-dale, around Yair, and Fairnalie. The road, after it quits the banks of Ettrick, takes a quick turn, and winds round the bases of hills; when on a sudden, it comes close on the Tweed; and within sight of a simple bridge, and scenery more enchanting than can be described. As soon as I crossed the bridge, Yair was to my left, on the other side of the river; and Fairnalie, on my right; I knew not which to admire most; the river; its banks; the hills; the rocks; or the wood, (which is here in abundance.) All are beautiful. The fancy, in Arcadia, cannot paint a more soft, more sweet, or more lovely scene, than that part of Tweed-dale. It is pastoral beauty completely perfect. Not an object that can hurt the eye, or ruffle the mind. The soul, for four miles, must be lost to every other sensation but that of soft delight, heightened by an elevation of sentiment, which nothing but such enchanting scenes as those on the Tweed can produce.

'When the chaise turned from the sweet flowing Tweed to mount the steep hill, by a rapidly tumbling water's side, I felt as if I were leaving Paradise. Had not my whole senses been engrossed by the scene below, I might have been somewhat alarmed at the road I was ascending; which is cut in the mountain's side; high, and hanging over the rough Caddon water, rolling to the left, down a rocky narrow bed, which it has formed, between two mountains. The road itself, however, is very good, though it be narrow; and the ascent from Tweed-dale very sharp, and frightful, for a timorous traveller to pass:—but as for lovers of nature, in the sublime and beautiful, *they* can have neither eyes to see their danger, nor *any* sensation, but that of regret at quitting a scene so enchanting.

'Two miles after I had turned my back upon this pastoral Paradise, the road came down upon the banks of the Galla water, joining the road to Galla Shiels: and I then entered Edinburghshire. The scenery on the banks of the Galla, as far as Bank House, is very pretty, but not to be compared with the lovely Tweed. The Galla water falls into the Tweed somewhat below the town of Galla Shiels.'

We readily believe Mrs. Murray, when she declares that the simple beauty of Nature is her hobby-horse; and we also assent to her inference, when she triumphantly asks, 'where can a hobby horse of that breed find greater scope than in Scotland, particularly in the Highlands?'—An account of fine houses

houses or *dressed* places is not to be expected in this volume; the author having been in pursuit of far different objects. For this reason, she did not attempt to enter the Duke of Buccleugh's house at Dalkeith, in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, but contented herself with seeing the pleasure grounds, park, &c.—We much approve the Lady's taste.

The description of the scenery about Loch Catheim is truly interesting; and the difficulties and dangers which the fair traveller encountered, in order to obtain a favourable view, astonish us, for they were more than sufficient to impede a less determined traveller than Mrs. Murray. We transcribe the account of Leadnock, in the hope that our readers will derive from it as much pleasure as we did:

'But of all the spots, for its size, none can compare to the sweet Eden, of Leadnock.

'The old Scotch ballad, of Bessy Bell and Mary Gray, gives the history of two affectionate faithful friends; how

"They bigg'd a bower on yon burn brae,
And theek'd it o'er with rashes," &c.

And it is the burn that moans through the thickets at Leadnock, by which these friends chose to big their bower, and there to retire to avoid the plague. Their lover followed them; but they did not escape the fatal disease, for all three fell victims to its rage.

'About thirty years since, the small estate of Leadnock was purchased by an officer, who found it in the rudest state of nature. Like our first parent, he pruned and planted; and with his faithful Eve, morning and evening, saw that it was good; and for it rejoiced, and were thankful to Him who gives and takes away. Every thing flourished under the fostering hands of this worthy pair.

'The woods, the walks, the verdant banks, the blooming rose, and twining woodbine, all proclaimed their taste and industry; not a spot in their Paradise but what was noticed and named emblematically. The house and garden, situated on a small plain, are embowered with trees of my friend's planting. In front of the house is a lawn, of an unequal semicircle, at the edge of which is an almost perpendicular rough rocky bank, where below rolls the Almond river, more picturesque than can be described, over a wide rocky bed, dashing through its winding way, darkened by high projecting rocks on both sides of it, with wood sprouting from every cliff, and feathering to the roaring stream. On the Leadnock side, down the rocks, and on every side, are fine trees of every description; particularly those on the left (in appearance impenetrable) towards the old Brig of Almond. To the right is a winding walk to the edge of the rocks hanging over the river; and at the top of a very steep path a stone seat is placed, on which is cut, "rest, and be thankful."

'The owner and creator of Leadnock was in Lord Ancram's regiment, the 24th, when in the year 1746 that regiment made the road through Glen Coe, in Argyleshire; and put up the stone on the

top of the high hill between Glen Coe and Glen Kinglass, called Rest and be thankful. At the bottom of the steep path I came to the most beautiful meadow that fancy can form, with a numerous flock of sheep feeding on its lovely green pasture. The Almond, with high rocky banks on one side of it, and flat to this lovely meadow on the other, sweeps round the better half of it; and on the other parts of this pastoral lawn, rising from it, are the thick woods of Leadnock, and the high banks of Logie Almond, covered with impenetrable underwood, and backed by noble timber trees; with the burn of the fair friends, marking the division of property, moaning in its course down the brae over pieces of rock, and through tufted branches, stumps of trees, and bushes, to join the Almond below. In this Arcadian meadow, under the hanging wood of Leadnock, I came to a bit of ground, walled in, and on a stone in the wall I read this simple inscription, "The tomb of Bessy Bell and Mary Gray." I plainly saw the marks of two graves, by the rising of the sod: the third, that of the lover, said to be at their feet, I could not find. These walls were raised, and within and without planted with all sorts of odoriferous shrubs and flowers, by the Officer above mentioned, who discovered the graves, unveiled the natural beauties of Leadnock, and brought them to perfection. The present owner of that sweet place, Mr. Graham of Balgowan, has greatly improved the farming part of it: but that where taste and sentiment prevailed is fast decaying, and sadly wants the parent's prop, who made it what it was, and far beyond comparison with what it is now. It is a pity Mr. Graham does not quit Balgowan, upon the boggy Pow, and gladden the Eden of Leadnock with the chief residence of an hospitable benevolent lord.

'The carriage road to Leadnock from Logie Almond is a great way about; and the walks through the woods that were once made and kept open for the convenience of the families of Leadnock and Logie, are now entirely obliterated and choked by thick woods, briers, springs, and every obstacle that rude nature has combined to destroy them. I was determined, however, to see that admired place. I set out alone, and contrived to lose my way; and into the bargain, got my flesh and my clothing tattered and torn; but I was resolved to accomplish my purpose, I therefore pierced thick woods, climbed stone walls, clambered over ploughed clods, knee deep, waded the burn, and at last succeeded. I was hospitably regaled with some nice mutton and potatoes at Leadnock house; a very acceptable refreshment after my laborious, lonely, blundering walk. The good man and his wife belonging to Mr. Graham, attentively shewed me all that could be seen, and then set me in the right road to Logie.'

As long continued descriptions, however accurate and just, or however bold, masterly, and picturesque, tend to fatigue the mind, Mrs. Murray not unfrequently introduces delineations of character, and sometimes diversifies her narrative with agreeable anecdotes. The following sketch of the manners of the people of Inverness will justify our observation:

'I have

'I have already mentioned the *present* amiable manners of the people of Inverness, and the adjacent country; and I must also add, that they are now perfectly secure in their property, as well as polished in their behaviour (which is not always the case in the south), retaining the honest simplicity and hospitality of the patriarchal age, which the rub of refinement has not impaired. Indeed, not only in Inverness, but in most parts of the Highlands, the manners of the people are pleasant to a great degree; and the poorest of the poor will vie with each other which can most assist, or gratify a stranger, provided it be not on a Sunday. On that day, if a carriage breaks down in the Highlands, there it must lie, for no hand will be found to mend it; not for want of good will, but for conscience' sake. In the Lowlands, in and about large towns, particularly where there are manufactories, or in sea-ports, there are as many depraved folks as in England: but in the Highlands all is safety and security;—no fear of thieves by night or day. All the doors and windows are left unfastened: and I have even seen sideboards, covered with plate of very great value, stand in open parlours night and day, without fear of its being touched.

'One instance, however, will shew what they *were* in Invernessshire, in former times, and what I found them, and have described them to be *now*.

'One of the M'Donalds of old, probably from Lochaber, coming down to visit Culloden, near Inverness, observed how numerous, and how very fine his cattle were. Culloden lamented, that in all probability he should not have sufficient pasture for them during the winter. M'Donald eyed the cattle, and told his friend he could accommodate him in that matter, if he wished it; he having fine pasture in abundance. The bargain was made for so much a head, for a stated time; and M'Donald promised to take the utmost care of the beasts, if Culloden would have them driven up to his lands; which was accordingly done. In about two months a man from M'Donald came down with a long face, saying, "his chief was in great trouble and dismay, at Culloden's cattle having been all stolen, and driven away." Culloden, who perfectly well understood the meaning of all this, without expressing either anger or concern, ordered his chief man to take great care of this messenger, and ply him well with meat and drink. After a day or two, the man signified he must return. Culloden, before he departed, called him before him, and without saying a syllable of the cattle, asked him if he had been treated to his heart's content; gave him money, and dismissed him. The man went up to M'Donald, and said to him dryly, "the man *must* have his cattle back again." This peremptory speech astonished the Highland thief, who remonstrated; but the man insisted, and swore if he did not comply, he would blaze abroad his roguery, and oblige him to it by force. M'Donald knew his man, and the consequences if he continued obstinate. He therefore quietly submitted; and in a short time sent the same man to Culloden to acquaint him, that he was very happy in having overtaken, and rescued his cattle from the thieves who had driven them away.'

We must now take leave of this agreeable tourist, with thanks for the entertainment afforded us by her singular and valuable performance. Her descriptions appear to us to be generally accurate and just; though we think that she rather over-rates the difficulties and dangers which it was necessary to encounter, before a perfect view of the country could be obtained. S.R.

ART. X. *The History, civil and ecclesiastical, and Survey of the Antiquities of Winchester.* By the Rev. John Milner, M.A. F.S.A. 4to. 2 Volumes.—Vol. I. *being the Historical Part.* 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Robson, &c. 1799.

THE city of Winchester has various claims on public notice. To the professed Antiquary, and to the general Historian, it presents a variety of subjects of curious investigation and interesting detail; and though it has now lost much of its former importance, it still exhibits traces of antient magnificence, which will naturally lead the sagacious and diligent inquirer into an examination of its original establishment, and of the numerous institutions, civil and religious, by which it has been distinguished. Perhaps, indeed, no other place affords so many inducements to a comprehensive research, and is so immediately connected with the rise and progress of civilization, literature, government, and religion, in the kingdom. It is no wonder, therefore, that a writer, possessing the talents and disposition of Mr. Milner, should direct his attention to this object; and take occasion, from the survey of it, to extend his views to those events in the British history, which the recital of its origin and various revolutions must almost unavoidably suggest to an enlarged and contemplative mind.

In the perusal of this publication, we have derived much pleasure from the local and general information which it affords us. While it brings to our recollection many important incidents pertaining to the history of our country in its earliest periods, it furnishes an instructive lesson of the vicissitudes to which the most magnificent establishments of human art and labour are exposed, in a succession of ages. This grave reflection will obtrude itself on every thoughtful reader, on turning over these pages; in which the author has distinctly marked the several æras of the advancement and prosperity, and of the subsequent decline and decay, of the antient and once highly celebrated city of Winchester.

Instructed and impressed as we have been by many parts of this performance, and disposed as we are to acknowlege that the author is entitled to respectful notice for the extent of his erudition

dition and investigation, we are sorry to be under the necessity not only of restricting our commendation, but of expressing the extreme dissatisfaction and disgust with which we have perused several pages of the work. We might possibly have excused the writer's professed veneration for legendary tales; the authority of which, just criticism and historical fidelity should have not only questioned but utterly exploded: —we might perhaps have thrown a veil over those testimonies of respect, which he has liberally rendered to characters of doubtful sanctity;—and justice, as well as candour, might have led us to devise an apology for those reflections, which indicate a predilection in favour of the system of religion to which he is attached;—if we had not, at the same time, observed a deliberate design and a laboured effort to vindicate the avowed patrons of this obnoxious system from deserved reproach, and, to degrade the most distinguished advocates of that reformation from popery, to which our country is principally indebted for the civil and religious liberty by which it has been blessed.

How far this work may be considered, under the disguise of a history and survey of the Antiquities of Winchester, as an apology for popery, we may venture to submit to the decision of all impartial readers: but we shall enable them to determine how we have formed our judgment, by some extracts which will occur in the sequel of this article. While we avow ourselves the advocates of free discussion, we must suggest that there seems to be, at the present period, at least an indelicacy in every open or disguised attempt to depreciate and undermine those principles of Protestantism, which lie at the foundation of our freedom and security. While our country has laudably extended its protection to the suffering Romish clergy; and while several rigid laws against English Catholics have been repealed, and a degree of toleration to which they were justly entitled has been extended to them; it does not seem very grateful, nor very decent, in any of those who find, for themselves or their friends, an asylum among us, to aim at alienating the judgment or affection of British subjects, from that system of religion which the British government is pledged to preserve inviolate.

After these preliminary remarks, we shall proceed to give a particular account of the contents of the work before us.

In tracing the foundation of Winchester, the author rejects with just contempt the idle stories of those who imagine that it was first built by Hudibras, 892 years before the birth of Christ, or 139 years before the foundation of Rome; and that its walls were erected by Mulmutius, who was the sole monarch of this island, and contemporary with Darius of Persia. He contents

himself with ascribing its origin to those Celtic emigrants, who, embarking at the nearest port of Armorica in Gaul, landed on the British coast, and made their chief settlement on this spot; which was so well adapted to their subsistence, their defence, and the exercise of their religious rites, and which they called *Caer-Gwent*, or the *White City*; by which name Winchester has been recognized by the most antient as well as by modern writers, who have left any account of the state of Britain. After having described the manners and customs, civil and religious, of these first settlers, the author proceeds to mention the revolution which the city underwent in consequence of the arrival of the Belgic Britons; who were in several respects more refined than the original inhabitants, and from whom it was denominated *Venta Belgarum*. During the occupancy of the Belgæ, this city, which was the capital of their territory, was considerably aggrandized; and after this people had submitted to Claudius, the Roman General, about the year of Christ 44, their capital was fortified by order of Ostorius Scapula in the year 50; at which time it was constructed in a square form, like that of the Roman camps in general, and encompassed by walls, composed of flints and durable mortar, of which traces still remain; as well as of the Roman camp on Catherine hill, in its vicinity.

Under the powerful protection of the Romans, this city made rapid progress in a variety of improvements, and enjoyed for several years the blessings of peace and civilization. The conversion of this part of Britain to the Christian faith is ascribed by Mr. Milner to the zeal of Lucius; who succeeded his father in the year 124; and who is said to have been the first Christian king in this or any other country, and the peculiar benefactor of Venta. Lucius built the cathedral from the ground (says Mr. M.) on a scale of grandeur and magnificence which has never been equalled, and bestowed on it the right of sanctuary, with other privileges. He also annexed to it a monastery, or community of clergy, together with other buildings for their accommodation. These buildings, however, were totally destroyed during the persecution of Dioclesian in the year 303 or 304, and most of the ecclesiastics were slaughtered. The rage of this persecution was restrained in 305 by Constantius Chlorus; and, in consequence of the edict of Constantine in 312, the inhabitants of Venta rebuilt their cathedral, and other habitations for the officiating clergy, but in a much humbler style than that of the original edifice by Lucius. The church and adjoining mansions were dedicated in honour of St. Amphibalus, the martyr; who was either an imaginary saint, or so denominated from the garment or surplice

plice worn by ecclesiastics, called Amphibalum.—After the retreat of the Romans, and the arrival of the Saxons in 449, Venta, (which had risen to the dignity of metropolis of the island,) London, Lincoln, and York, were seized by the conquerors; who proceeded 'to fill them with sacrileges and cruelties, destroying churches, profaning relics of the martyrs, burning the holy scriptures, and murdering the clergy upon their altars.' The ruin of this city was completed by Cerdic, the Saxon General, in 516; its magnificent cathedral was made subservient to the gloomy and impure rites of the Saxon idols, Thor, Woden, Frea, and Tuisco; and its arts, splendour, commerce, and manufactures, were annihilated. Its name was also changed from *Caer-Gwent*, and *Venta Belgarum*, into Wintanceaster, or Winchester; which expresses its former importance as a Roman station. Winchester, however, under all its disadvantages, was the chief city of the most powerful king in the island. Accordingly, Cerdic, 'having resolved in the most public and solemn manner to declare himself monarch of the western kingdom, assembled the chief of his subjects together in this city, and there caused himself to be crowned, in the new temple of Thor, late the cathedral church, with the usual ceremonies of his nation. This important transaction took place in the year 519, from which year all our antient historians date the beginning of the West Saxon kingdom; a kingdom which, even at its first beginning, was paramount to the other Saxon states, and which, in the end, was destined to swallow up the whole heptarchy.'

In connection with the history of Winchester, we might naturally expect to find an account of a character so distinguished as that of king Arthur. Mr. Milner, though in other instances sufficiently credulous, refutes many fabulous relations concerning the achievements of this British prince; and he observes that the chief cause of the confusion, which has occurred in the records of his exploits, has been the substitution of *Caer-Gwent* or Winchester for the *Caer-Gwent* of Monmouthshire; and the *Caer Sciont* on the borders of Hampshire, for that near Caernarvon in North Wales. We should far exceed our limits, if we were to transcribe what the author has written on this subject; and it is not very easy to decide on a question that has puzzled and divided antiquaries and historians so much as the history of Arthur. Neither must we pursue Mr. M.'s detail of the succession of Saxon kings, whose court and seat of government were chiefly held at Winchester. He does not give a very flattering account of its splendour and prosperity during this period. It was populous and warlike, but without virtue and science: its inhabitants were unacquainted

with the use of letters; its laws and constitution were precarious and undefined; its princes were capricious and tyrannical; and its religion, suited to the disposition and manners of the people, was austere and gloomy. In the 7th century, however, a brighter scene appears. St. Birinus, a zealous priest, obtained a commission from Pope Honorius, to announce the gospel in those parts of the island into which it had not yet penetrated; and this ardent saint, having qualified himself for his mission by learning the Saxon tongue, is said to have been empowered to accomplish the important object of it by a signal miracle: of which Mr. M. gives the following account:

'Proceeding from Genoa through France, our apostle came to the sea-port in the channel, from which he was to embark for our island. Here, having performed the sacred mysteries, he left behind him what is called a corporal, containing the blessed sacrament, which he did not recollect until the vessel, in which he sailed, was some way out at sea. It was in vain to argue the case with the pagan sailors who steered the ship, and it was impossible for him to leave his treasure behind him. In this extremity, supported by a strong faith, he stept out of the ship upon the waters, which became firm under his feet; in short, he walked, in this manner, to land, and having secured what he was anxious about, returned on board the vessel in the same manner, which, in the mean time, had remained stationary in the place where he left it. The ship's crew were of the nation to which he was sent, who, being struck with the miracle which they had witnessed, lent a docile ear to his instructions. Thus our apostle began the conversion of the West Saxons, before he landed upon their territory. This prodigy is so well attested by the most judicious historians, that those who have had the greatest interest to deny it, have not dared openly to do so.'

To this miraculous relation, Mr. Milner subjoins a note; in which he observes that

'If there be any faith in history, and unless an absolute scepticism takes place, it must be admitted that miracles were frequently wrought, not only at the conversion of our ancestors, but also during the time that they continued in their primitive fervour and strength of faith.'

For our own part, we cannot help remarking on this account, that the author's confidence is not inferior to his credulity; and that, without much better evidence than the testimony of the monkish writers cited by him, (though supported by the authority of St. Gregory himself, to which he appeals,) we must withhold our assent, at the risk of incurring, in the judgment of Mr. M. the odium of scepticism and infidelity: nor can we forbear to express our surprise, that such relations as these should obtain credit with a person of a well-informed mind at the close of the 18th century.—Such, however, was the influence of this

miracle

miracle with Kinegils the king, who was converted, together with many others of every rank and condition, that he soon afterwards began to collect materials for building a cathedral, worthy of so great a prelate as St. Birinus, and of Winchester his royal city; and it was also his intention to have settled a prodigious tract of land round the city, as a foundation for the see: but his death in 643 prevented the execution of his purpose; which, after some delay, was completed by his son and successor in the most magnificent manner with which that age was acquainted. Suitable offices were also erected for the monks, or regular canons; and the first establishment was endowed with all the lands which his father had left for that purpose, and to which the son added three other manors.

'We cannot fail (says the author, p. 113) to have remarked the influence of Christianity upon the manners and condition of our rude ancestors. They had now learnt that there are pleasures far better adapted to the heart of man than sensuality and revenge: hence they began to lay a restraint upon their passions, which raised them above that brutal state in which they had hitherto lived, and caused them to observe the moderation of just defence, amidst the very calamities of war, with their enemies. We no longer meet with wars of extermination; and instead of selling their own children to foreigners, they ceased to hold in servitude even their prisoners of war. Hitherto plunder and robbery, both public and private, had constituted their chief occupation and their glory; but now we meet with innumerable instances of their resigning their lawful property, either to assist their fellow creatures, or to cut off from themselves the sources of avarice and worldly solicitude. The same cause, which improved their moral character, served also to elevate their minds, and to bestow upon them all the benefits of civilized life. The gospel introduced the use of letters, and letters introduced every kind of knowledge, classical and scientific. The sons of those men, who knew nothing beyond steering the piratical *cuyle* (or galley), or wielding the murderous *seare* (the crooked sword), now became the oracles of sacred and profane literature. Such were our Daniel and Aldhelm, in the south of the island: such were a Wilfrid and a Bede, in the northern parts of it. To the same cause we are indebted for our laws and constitution: without a Birinus and a Swithun, we should never have known an Alfred. Finally, the same missionaries who taught our ancestors the worship of the true God, equally instructed them to build stone edifices, supported on arches and pillars, to glaze and to lead their buildings; likewise to carve and to paint, to sing and to perform on musical instruments. It is true, these arts were first introduced for the decorum and splendour of religion, but they soon became subservient to the ordinary purposes of life. Thus, in a word, did our city, which under a Cerdic and a Ceaulin, was no more than a mean group of gloomy huts, under a Kenewalk and an Ina, began once more to shine forth as a civilized city of the first rank.'

In

In the 7th and 8th chapters, we have the history of Winchester blended with a considerable part of the history of England, from the establishment of the heptarchy under Egbert, to the Norman conquest. It will suffice to say that, during this period, Winchester, though subject to some reverses inseparable from the dreadful devastations to which this country was at that time exposed, not only retained its former dignity and pre-eminence, but acquired increasing wealth and prosperity; and its splendor suffered no diminution by the Norman conquest. During the civil wars, which were carried on with great violence between Stephen and Matilda, Winchester took part with the former. The calamities which the city suffered, in this cruel contest, have been well described by a late elegant historian (Lord Lyttelton); and they were of such a nature, that it did not soon, if ever, regain its former eminence. It was repaired by Henry II. and received from him many tokens of royal favour. From him it obtained some valuable charters, by one of which its chief magistrate was raised to a rank above all other municipal officers in the kingdom: it being ordained that Winchester should be governed by a mayor with a subordinate bailiff; and this was an honourable privilege, which London did not acquire till the 10th year of King John. Under this reign, Mr. M. reprobates the constitutions of Clarendon, of which Judge Blackstone (Comm. vol. 4. p. 422. 8vo.) observes, that they checked the power of the pope and his clergy, and greatly narrowed the total exemption which they claimed from the secular jurisdiction.—Mr. M. closes his vindication of the conduct of Abp. Becket, who died a martyr to the unwarrantable pretensions and usurpations of the church, with an eulogium on his character and cause, and on the manner in which he submitted to the unjustifiable violence of his assassins.

Winchester contended for precedency with London at the coronation of Richard I.; and though the latter succeeded, the new monarch presented the former city with an ample charter, confirming and enlarging its antient privileges.—This city was afterward the scene of John's disgraceful vassalage to the pope.—It was highly favoured by Henry III. who was a native of this place: but, upon the death of this prince, it declined in commerce and importance. The most fatal stroke to its prosperity, however, was the ordinance of Edward III. in 1363, to remove the English staple to his newly-acquired town of Calais; which indicated a desire of turning the clothing trade into its antient Flemish channels.

'Winchester had frequently risen from sieges and fires with fresh vigour and splendour; she had as often recruited her population, after destructive pestilences; but this sudden drying up of her trade and commerce,

commerce, after the extraordinary exertions she had lately made to increase them, she was never afterwards able to repair, and henceforward her decline from wealth and consequence was sensible and uniform. Still, however, Winchester continued to be the second bishopric, in point of dignity, and the first, in point of opulence, in the kingdom; as likewise the talents, transactions, and merits of its pastors, by their charities, public works, and regular large establishment in this city, made some compensation for the absence of the royal court, and the decay of our commerce.'

Mr. Milner introduces in this reign a particular account of the beneficent acts and distinguished character of William of Wykeham: but, as the life of this very respectable prelate has been written by the learned Dr. Lowth, late Bishop of London, it is needless for us to cite any extract relating to him from this publication.—Under the reign of Richard II. the writer takes occasion to throw out some invidious reflections on the character of Wickliff. Mr. M.'s attachment to popery, and his enmity to the reformation, cannot be more notoriously manifested than by his eagerness to embrace every opportunity of vilifying the characters of those who contributed to this event. Wickliff was not likely to escape. To the influence of the sentiments inculcated by this illustrious reformer, Mr. M. unjustly ascribes 'those democratic insurrections under Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and the seditious priest, John Ball, which, being grounded on the system of Wickliff, threatened the total overthrow of all civil government, and the dissolution of society.'—He endeavours to support this general charge by the authority of the non-juror, Dr. Collier, to whom he very frequently appeals; and by citing some exceptionable tenets, which Wickliff or his followers had adopted.

To Henry VI. the college, cathedral, and other institutions of Winchester, both literary and ecclesiastical, afforded sources of satisfaction; and he frequently resorted thither in order to make himself acquainted with the œconomy, discipline, and plan of study established by Wykeham in this place, with a view to the institution which he was forming at Eton, near his palace of Windsor. Henry VII. confirmed an antient privilege of this city, viz. that of keeping the standard weights and measures for the whole kingdom; and he presented it with a new set of them, of superior workmanship and materials, which are still preserved in the Guildhall of the city. The author has given engravings of some of these, viz. the bushel, gallon, and yard. He has also introduced a very just eulogium on the learning and virtues of Fox, who was bishop of this diocese in the reign of Henry VII.

Mr. Milner next proceeds to animadvert, with just severity, on the character of Henry VIII. We have no inclination to

frame an apology for the views and conduct of this capricious and cruel monarch; though, perhaps, we may differ with the author as to the ultimate result of the measures which his pride and passion led him to adopt. The suppression of the monasteries was unquestionably an act of injustice and violence: but we have not such ideas of their importance and utility as the author entertains; nor do we repose so much confidence as Mr. M. places in the testimony and judgment of Collier, his favourite authority on this and many other occasions.—In this reign, Winchester was plundered without mercy. Many of its religious establishments were abolished; and those who depended on them for subsistence were consigned to distress and beggary. The college, however, was preserved; and we trust that it will long remain an honourable seminary of literature and virtue.—Of these measures, the author's sentiments may be discovered in the following paragraph:

P. 333. 'We are informed, that "the seizure of the estates of the lesser abbeys was not generally acceptable to the people. They found hospitality decay, the farmer's rents were raised, and the poor increased upon the country." These complaints of course became much louder at the suppression of the greater abbeys. These, as they had it more in their power, so they were generally more beneficial to the public. By their doles and alms they entirely provided for the poor, insomuch that no poor laws existed until soon after their dissolution. The monks let their farms at easy rents, and made allowances for unfavourable seasons, so that abundance and population increased around them. They received into their houses and entertained strangers of all conditions, according to their rank, gratis; they provided hospitals for the indigent sick, and seminaries for poor children. Their magnificent churches were the schools of the arts, both liberal and mechanical, and their scriptoria and libraries were the only asylum of the sciences and of classical literature. But all these advantages were at present lost to the community, and so many monuments of ancient piety were now annihilated, to gratify the passions of one sensual king, and to raise the families of a few wicked courtiers. The fatal effects of this change were no where more sensible than at Winchester. It had fallen from all its wealth and grandeur, as a royal and commercial city; but the number and splendour of its religious foundations chiefly kept up whatever consequence, trade, and exterior appearance it still possessed. But these being dissolved, and the edifices themselves soon after pulled down or falling to decay, it must soon have worn the appearance of a city sacked by a hostile army. In a word, it is chiefly since the reign of Henry VIII. that Winchester may be said to be no more than the skeleton of its former state.'

We wish that Mr. M.'s zeal had not led him to palliate, though he pretends not to vindicate, the persecutions of the protestants in Queen Mary's reign; and that he had drawn a parallel

parallel more conformable to historical facts, between the severities of her government and those of Queen Elizabeth; though we have no very high opinion of the moral and political conduct of the latter illustrious princess. In his account of Mary, Mr. Milner writes; 'however unpopular the reign of this queen has proved with the nation in general, yet certainly it served to raise the drooping head of our city; and had it continued longer, would probably have restored it to some degree of its antient consequence and splendour.'—After having minutely described the several circumstances that attended the marriage of Philip and Mary, which was celebrated at Winchester, the author adds, 'we may well imagine that old Winchester lifted up her head on this joyful occasion. Certain it is that her charters were renewed; and it is likely that some part of the immense treasures brought over by Philip, which were much more to the taste of the English than the splendid titles he had conferred on their queen, circulated in this city, to the benefit of its inhabitants.'

Of the author's laboured vindication of this reign, we extract the following specimen: (p. 355.)

'As those sanguinary persecutions, for which this reign was unfortunately too famous, reached Winchester, it is necessary to say something concerning them; and since the matter has been misrepresented by the common herd of writers, for keeping up a spirit of unchristian resentment and counter-persecution in that communion which is now triumphant, we shall enlarge upon the subject farther than would be proper, were a less benevolent object in view. First, then, it is to be observed, that if Mary was a persecutor, it was not in virtue of any tenet of her religion that she became so. At her coming to the crown, and for almost two years afterwards, whilst she declared herself openly in favour of the antient religion, she as openly disclaimed every degree of force or violence against those who professed and practised any of the later systems.'—'Secondly, if, after an interval of near two years' toleration, the queen engaged the parliament to revive the antient acts against the Lollards, it cannot be denied that she had many provocations, from which she too hastily inferred, that the existence of the protestant religion was incompatible with the security of her government.'—'Thirdly, if Gardiner, Bonner, and certain other catholics taught and practised religious persecution in their days, they were not singular in this particular: the most eminent protestant divines openly inculcated the same intolerant lessons.'—'Lastly, the huge history of these persecutions, written by John Fox, which has been the storehouse for all succeeding writers on the same subject, has been demonstrated to be one tissue of falsehood, misrepresentation, or absurdity.'

This defence,—which sets out with the assertion that persecution does not spring from any tenet of popery, which is contradicted by the decrees of councils, the bulls of popes, the establishment

establishment of tribunals, and particularly of the inquisition, and the avowed intolerance of many of its ablest advocates, —needs no comment.

Of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the author observes that, whatever may be said of it in other respects, it was certainly prejudicial to the interests of Winchester; inasmuch as its wealth and consequence were then inseparably connected with those of the national church.

In balancing the accounts between the persecutions of Mary and Elizabeth, Mr. M. states, without any authority, 'that the whole number of those who were put to death in different parts of the kingdom, for the profession of the catholic religion, in Elizabeth's reign, was about 200, without mentioning the great numbers who died in prison, who were stripped of all their fortune, banished, &c.'—and then, like a true advocate of the cause to which he is attached, he proceeds to obviate the pretexts by which these persecutions have been justified. We hope, however, that no person will presume to justify any species of religious persecution; and the pleas, to which Mr. Milner refers, can have been adduced only to palliate what no consideration can justify. He has not stated the number of persons who suffered for religion under Mary; and therefore, in order to exhibit the parallel fairly to the view of the reader, we shall cursorily mention the following particulars. Mary's persecution began within one year and seven months after the commencement of her reign; and in a period of about three years, her reign extending to five years and a half, Mr. Hume informs us, (Hist. vol. 4. p. 448. 8vo.), that 277 persons suffered by fire, besides those punished by imprisonment, fines, and confiscations. Many of these were men eminent for their learning and reputation. Now Mr. M. states the number of those who were put to death in the reign of Elizabeth, a period of forty-four years, to be 200: but Camden reduced this number to 62; and he says that, during the first eleven years of her reign, there was not one papist called in question on account of conscience or religion. We leave the reader to his own reflection on this parallel.

Mr. M. closes his account of Elizabeth with this observation: —'the unrivalled success of Queen Elizabeth in all her projects, and particularly in cutting off all those who were obnoxious to her, was probably the very circumstance that embittered the last scene of her life, which a faithful historian of the church of England (Collier) assures us, was dark and disconsolate, very unlike that of her unsuccessful rival the Queen of Scots, though it took place, by Elizabeth's command, on a scaffold.'

The

The author's predilection for the Stuarts is strongly marked, and evidences of it occur so frequently, that it cannot escape animadversion. The gun-powder plot, as it is called, he ascribes to Cecil; who is supposed to have concerted it, in order effectually to root out of this nation the remains of its antient faith. What he says of Charles II. and James II. deserves notice: (P. 437.)

'Both the royal brothers were attached to the faith that had been originally preached in this country. Charles, from political motives, had dissembled his religious sentiments, until a mortal sickness obliged him to declare them. James acted a more honourable and conscientious part. He avowed his faith, but at the same time declared his abhorrence of every kind of constraint upon the consciences of others, and his fixed resolution of supporting the establishment protected by the laws, but still so as to afford complete toleration to other communions. His conduct was throughout conformable to this declaration. In 1685 the edict of Nantz, which tolerated protestants in France, being revoked, great numbers of that persuasion flying to this city and neighbourhood, amongst other places on the southern coast, James afforded them every kind of protection and favour that it was in his power to shew, contributing out of his own purse to their relief, setting on foot a general subscription for the same purpose, and causing them to be naturalized free of expence.'—'The king expected to find the same spirit of liberality and toleration in his subjects which he himself was possessed of; but the event proved, that in prosecuting his favourite scheme of uniting an established church with universal religious liberty, he built too much on his civil prerogative, too much on his ecclesiastical supremacy, as the legal head of the church of England, and too much on the avowed doctrine of that church, concerning passive obedience and non-resistance. But, in all these points, he was deceived by the judges, the divines, and the ministers whom he employed. In short, he endeavoured to enforce his famous declaration of liberty of conscience, and he lost the crown for himself and for the house of Stuart, by the attempt. To fall in such a cause was worthy of a king.'

This, indeed, is a very strong declaration. If James lost his crown unjustly, what is the inference with regard to his successors?—Mr. M. seems to forget that James's declaration of indulgence was a defiance of existing laws.

We cannot close this article, though already too much extended, without noticing the author's reflection on the excellent Bishop Hoadly*. (P. 445.)

'The only bishop, who was raised to the see of Winchester by George II. was the famous Dr. Benjamin Hoadly, the great champion of what is called the *Low Church*. This party gives up all pretensions to divine jurisdiction, the power of the keys, the necessity of

* A Letter from Dr. Hoadly Ashe to Mr. Milner, on this subject, will be found noticed in the *Catalogue* part of this month's Review.

ministerial

ministerial succession, the authority of the convocation, together with the certainty of the 39 articles, and every other tenet which the established bishops of the last century had considered as essential to the idea of a church. It is plain the administration, then in place, favoured this system, which disarmed the church, and made it a mere tool of the state, by the successive preferments which its great hero met with, namely, the sees of Bangor, Hereford, Salisbury, and lastly, that of Winchester, upon the death of Dr. Willis; as also by its taking advantage of his concessions to dissolve the convocation, which has never been allowed by Government to proceed to any business since his time.'

On the principles and character of this illustrious prelate, and on the meritorious services which he rendered to the protestant succession, and to the establishment of the present family on the throne, it is altogether needless to enlarge. A slight acquaintance with the history of the period, to which we refer, will furnish an ample vindication of Bishop Hoadly; whose name and memory will be ever dear to the friends of the British constitution, and to the cause of civil and religious liberty.

The author concludes this work with a brief recital of the civil, social, and natural advantages, that distinguish the antient city of Winchester.—The passages which we have selected, and to which many more might have been added, manifest prejudices in favour of his own religious tenets, as well as a degree of credulity, which seem to us to have misled his judgment on many occasions; and to have depreciated, with respect to authenticity and impartiality, the value of a work which abounds with histprical research, and which is therefore instructive and useful.

☞ In our next Review, we shall give an account of "Reflections on the Principles and Institutions of Popery, &c. by John Sturges, LL.D. occasioned by the Rev. John Milner's History of Winchester:" to which, Mr. Milner has recently published a reply. Rev.

ART. XI. *Anecdotes of George Frederick Handel, and of John Christopher Smith.* With select Pieces of Music, composed by J. C. Smith, never before published. 4to. pp. 64, and 34 Plates of Music. 12s. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

WE were glad to see this work advertized; because every circumstance concerning the great musician, who has so long contributed to the delight of the lovers of his art, and whose productions and memory are still highly venerated, must be interesting to his votaries. We were also pleased to see the

name of the worthy Mr. Smith, the scholar of Handel, and successor to him in conducting the oratorios, joined with that of his great master. The editor, however, apologizes for the appearance of the publication, because 'the Life of Handel has been already given in numerous productions:' but he adds that 'the motives which gave rise to the attempt must plead his excuse; the profits of the publication being appropriated to the use of the relations of Mr. Smith, whose memoirs are now first presented to the world.'

The *Memoirs of the Life of Handel*, published in 1760*, (the year after his death,) were well-written, though with few and inaccurate materials for the early part of the great composer's life.—Sir John Hawkins had nothing new to relate;—and in the present anecdotes, we find nothing characteristic. Handel was, perhaps, more original in his humour and conversation than in his compositions, with all their merit. He scarcely ever spoke without wit, humour, or broken English, which created a laugh in the hearers.—In the life prefixed to Dr. Burney's account of the commemoration of Handel†, which he modestly called a *sketch*, he seemed to have taken great pains to procure from Germany original and genuine information concerning the great musician's early life, previously to his arrival in England; and afterward, besides the history of his genius in the critical remarks on his most sublime works, Dr. Burney gave, in his History of Music, and Diary of the Commemoration, such traits of Handel's humour and character, as furnish a portrait of a distinct individual of no common cast.

The new anecdotes in this recent life of Handel are few; and they are such as, in early youth, less genius might have produced. Of the merit of his *compositions*, the best eulogium is the long duration of their fame, and almost every lover of music, in England knows them by rote: but characteristic anecdotes, particularly of his juvenile days, we hoped to have found in this work, from records and narrations of Mr. Smith; whose father came hither with the great musician, and continued to live with him nearly till the time of his death, and therefore must have known more of his private life than any other person.—If, however, the editor's motive for writing did not arise from the new materials which he had to lay before the public, benevolence, a more laudable incentive, has conducted him to the press.

Anecdotes of John Christian Smith.

The late worthy Mr. Smith of Bath, born in 1712, was the son of John Christ. Schmidt, the copyist, steward, and faithful

* See M. Rev. vol. xxii. p. 471. *et seq.*

† See Rev. vol. lxxii. p. 279.

cashier of Handel, from the time of his arrival in England till within a few years of his death. The infancy, adolescence, and youth of J. C. Smith, the subject of these anecdotes, offer nothing that is singular, or of sufficient importance to interest the public at large. We are indeed told that he had some lessons in practical music from Handel; an advantage which few young professors could boast: but the instructions which he received from Dr. Pepusch, and from Roseingrave, were obtained in common with many musical students of the time *. Having travelled on the Continent with a person of fortune, he became acquainted, at Geneva, with some English gentlemen of learning and talents; which circumstance seems to have given a turn to his manners and conduct during the rest of his life. Among these were Mr. Benjamin Stillingfleet; Mr. Price, of Foxley, Herefordshire; Mr. Windham, of Felbrig, Norfolk, (now Secretary at War); Mr. Tate, of Mitcham, &c.—with whom the acquaintance mellowed into a friendship which lasted during their several lives.

father of the present

After the period of his return to England, Mr. Smith mixed very little with his professional brethren, though he continued to compose music and to teach the harpsichord, till the year 1760; when, being in possession not only of the *scores* of Handel's oratorios, but of the single vocal and instrumental parts which had been transcribed for and used by his numerous bands, Mr. Smith undertook to continue the performance of oratorios in Lent, during eight years, on his own account; and during nine more, jointly with Stanley.

We have heard from the first contemporary authority, that there was a shyness between Handel and the younger Smith for several years, which kept them asunder till the great musician lost his sight: but the difference was occasioned by no dignified cause of quarrel. When Mr. Smith, about the year 1739, published a book of harpsichord-lessons, in quarto, Handel took it amiss that his scholar, the son of his copyist, should presume to have a title-page to his lessons engraved exactly in the same form and text-hand with his own first-book of *Pieces de Clavecin*, the best of all his productions —Mr.

* In the note on Dr. Pepusch, p. 41. the editor tells us that, 'at the latter end of his life, he devoted himself to the study of Grecian music, and endeavoured to illustrate the doctrine of Isaac Vossius, concerning the *rhythm* of the ancients.' The subject of this paper, by Dr. Pepusch, printed in the Phil. Trans. vol. xliv. is here very inaccurately stated. The word *rhythm* never occurs in the whole memoir; the title of which is, "Of the various *Genera* and *Species* of *Music* among the *Ancients*, with some Observations concerning their *Scale*."

Smith's

Smith's pieces were then perhaps inferior only to those of his model. They consisted, as was then the general fashion, of preludes, fugues, allemandes, corants, and jigs.—If, previously to his blindness, Handel was indisposed during the performance of oratorios, he often called on Kelway for assistance in the organ; whose performance he honoured so far as frequently to go to St. Martin's church, to listen to his voluntaries under the organ-loft.

We find a note at p. 43. of this pamphlet, on the mention of Harry Carey, which we cannot pass over. We are sorry to see in this note an unqualified assertion repeated, that Carey was the author of the words and music of the now national song or hymn of *God save Great George our King*; a story which we have so fully refuted in our Review for July 1799, p. 356. As all the magazines and news-papers of the times tell us that Carey died in 1743, the song could not have been written or set to music by him for the rebellion of 1745! nor on any antecedent occasion, since it does not appear in any of Carey's numerous publications of songs with and without music; and had it been his, it could not have remained concealed during so many years. The composer of the words and melody was utterly unknown at the time of the rebellion, when it was in such favour, and so much inquiry was made after the author. We mean not, by denying poor Carey this honour, to depreciate his talents; which were original both in the words and music of a great number of beautiful ballads, serious and comic: but his claim to the air in question is so ill-founded, that nothing but the infirmity of Mr. Smith's memory, at his great age, and when on the brink of the grave, can account for his abetting it.

Mr. Smith was certainly an elegant musician, and in his conduct and manners far above the general level of the professors of his art: but we are not certain that his execution as a practitioner was great, nor that his invention as a composer was original. Of his musical productions which accompany these anecdotes, we have however been informed, by better judges than ourselves, who are partial to Handel's school, that the duet from his oratorio of *David's lamentation over Saul and Jonathan* has great merit in the expression of the words, and ingenuity in the accompaniments; without which it would resemble *Steffani*'s learned style of chamber duet: but, with the accompaniments, it might well pass for Handel's composition, from the contrivance of the instrumental parts, its adherence to the subject, and the harmony of the whole. This duet seems perfectly qualified for admission at the Concert of

Antient Music, where the style of Handel is so well understood both by performers and hearers.—For the rest of these compositions, they were pleasing common-place at the time, but a perspicuous critic would lay his finger on every passage which had been drawn from Handel's source.

We plainly see that Mr. Smith's style of composition was that of the day, without an attempt at deviation; a style which Handel had rendered *à-la-mode*, and to which not only Mr. Smith, but all the English composers, strictly adhered during more than 40 years; as is manifest in the works of Green, Boyce, Arne, (in his oratorios,) Worgan, and Stanley. Arne, in his dramatic music, adopted easy and elegant passages from Italian operas: but we must except his Comus, in which there is much original melody, as well as in his Vaux-hall ballads. Mr. Smith never was a popular composer. His oratorios, though new, and in support of which he had the patronage of several illustrious friends and great families, (particularly that of Barrington,) were not heard and attended so well as those of Handel, which had been in constant use for many years. The English opera of *The Fairies*, in which Guadagni and Frasi performed the principal parts, had a considerable run: but it was never revived; nor did the airs penetrate into Vaux-hall, Ranelagh, Marybone, private concerts, or private families, like those of Arne's Comus, or Boyce's Chaplet, after having been heard at the theatres.

On the whole, it appears to us that there are more negligences in these anecdotes of Smith, in respect to style, than in those of Handel. Indeed the materials are less interesting, and the hero is of very inferior importance; which may have allowed us, as readers, more leisure to attend to polish and embellishment of style. In that part of the book which concerns Handel, we were surprized to find the editor talking of '*making* extempore poetry;'—'*composing* extempore music;' and the anecdotes of Smith are sometimes deformed by cant phrases and vulgarisms, though manifestly written by a person who is accustomed to the press.

A well engraved portrait of Handel is prefixed to the anecdotes of him; and one of Smith appears before the part of the work which is appropriated to the delineation of his character.

Dr. B....y.

ART.

ART. XII. *Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt*, undertaken by order of the Old Government of France. By C. S. Sonnini, Member of several scientific and literary Societies; and formerly an Officer and Engineer in the French Navy. Illustrated by Engravings, consisting of Portraits, Views, Plans, Antiquities, Plants, Animals, &c. drawn on the Spot, under the Author's Inspection. To which is subjoined a Map of the Country. Translated from the French. 4to. pp. 730. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Debrett. 1800.

IN the Appendix to our 29th volume, N.S. p. 577, and in vol. 30, p. 121 and 297, we took ample notice of the French edition of this curious and interesting work, and of Dr. Hunter's *quickly-executed* translation. We are here presented with a more expensive and splendid version, executed more at leisure and with greater attention, and embellished with plates more beautifully engraved *. This majestic quarto must be allowed to be superior to the Doctor's humble octavos, and might safely have been suffered to speak for itself: but the anonymous translator, piqued at being preceded in the market by the Doctor's rapid pen, gratifies his angry feelings by descending to the most minute and irritating criticisms. Without making any allowances for the circumstances of the case; without giving the Doctor credit for the most moderate portion of science; and by setting down every error of haste and inadvertence to the score of absolute ignorance; he has exhibited Dr. Hunter as an object of pity and derision, and as one who ought not to have undertaken such a work. He is termed the '*seraphic* translator,' and the '*sapient* divine,' &c.; and the present translator carries his ridicule so far as to 'recommend the perusal of a certain passage of Dr. H.'s version as an admirable remedy for a pain in the bowels;' for which, he says, 'I am persuaded, it will prove as infallible a specific as a draught of sour small beer.' It is impossible to approve this conduct, and it would be a dereliction of duty to pass it without censure. Though it must be owned that, both in the Preface and in the Appendix, (entitled † *Hilaria Hunteriana*,) many of the Doctor's literary "*sins, negligencies, and ignorances*" are detected, yet the present translator is not at all times fair and accurate in his statements. For instance; in p. 9 of the Preface he says,

'In THEOLOGY, it undoubtedly never could be expected that a *layman* should cope with a *Doctor* of *Divinity*, or pretend to illustrate

* The last plate containing a view of *Abou-mandour* is added by the translator, and is a fine engraving.

† In these *Hilaria*, we do not find many things to make us *merry*. Most of the errors and blunders are the evident effect of haste.

the scriptures by the travels of a French republican; but the world is certainly much indebted to the reverend translator for a new exposition of the celebrated axiom of our Saviour, which has much puzzled commentators and alarmed the rich: "It is easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle, than for a rich man to enter the kingdom of God." Dr. Hunter seems, by his learned note, to be of opinion, that by the eye of a needle is meant the wicket of a convent in the desert of St. Macarius.'

If we turn, however, to the short note in vol. 2. p. 155, we shall find that Dr. H. says nothing about the eye of a needle being *like a wicket*, &c. but only remarks that "perhaps this passage may serve to elucidate a simile employed by our Saviour." Had the angry critic known or recollected that some have asserted that there was near Jerusalem a low gate called the *Needle's eye*, impassable by camels without the greatest difficulty, and which is supposed to have given occasion to the saying, Dr. Hunter's note would not have been treated with so much contempt.

The present translator thus states the case between himself and his rival, in Preface, p. 1.

'Having long been informed that Sonnini intended to publish his Travels in Egypt, I was induced, from my taste for natural history, and a knowledge of his talents as a naturalist, to engage in the difficult task of giving them to the public in an English dress. Accordingly, through the medium of the daily papers, I announced my intention as far back as the 4th of last June; and the moment I obtained a copy of the work, I put the plates into the hands of some of the most eminent engravers, and was proceeding in the prosecution of my design with all imaginable ardour, when, on the 20th of August, a translation of the same work was published, under the name of HENRY HUNTER, D. D. Notwithstanding the forward state of my plates, and the considerable progress made in printing my manuscript, I was more than once inclined to suppress the whole, conceiving that one good translation of a foreign work was quite sufficient. But upon a perusal of Dr. Hunter's production, I discovered, that it abounded with so many *lively* images, so many brilliant sallies of wit, such a multiplicity of flashes of merriment; in short, that the ingenious translator had so greatly improved upon his original, and indulged so much in beautiful paraphrases, that I could not help considering he had carried his pleasantry rather too far, and that this exuberance of fancy might not suit the taste of every class of readers. For these reasons, I judged that a *serious* translation of Sonnini's Travels might not, perhaps, be altogether unacceptable.'

We are glad that this gentleman was not diverted from his purpose; and it may be presumed that he will not go unrewarded for presenting to the public so handsome an edition of this work. Egypt is likely, for some time to come, to excite the

the inquiries of the literati of Europe; and though the French have been completely baffled in their schemes relative to that country, we shall probably, through their means, acquire more correct information respecting its government, natural history, antiquities, &c. than has hitherto been exhibited. From Bonaparte's expedition, we may learn many particulars of the state of Egypt: but little, we apprehend, will have been effected by it towards meliorating the condition of the natives, or restoring their antient learning and splendor. *The first People in the Universe*, as the French are styled by French vanity, may have discovered monuments to which all approach has hitherto been prohibited either by a suspicious government or by a wretched and barbarous people: but now they must have lost all ideas of raising cities from their ashes, of digging and repairing canals, of uniting the Red Sea with the Mediterranean, and of restoring the commerce of the East to its antient channel. A philanthropist would rejoice in having the wretched state of the inhabitants of Egypt amended: but, even from M. Sonnini's own account of the dangers of navigation near the Egyptian coast *, to say nothing of the difficult navigation of the Red Sea, we may question whether any benefit would have accrued to Europe, had the French succeeded in the Egyptian expedition; and whether the trade to the East is not carried on with more safety, dispatch, and economy, round the Cape of Good Hope, than it could possibly be up the Red Sea and through Egypt. While navigation was in its infancy, and commerce floated in small vessels, Alexandria may have been a good situation for an Emporium between Europe and the East Indies: but, since the ocean has been perfectly explored, and we can navigate immense castles to and from with little risk, the circuitous is preferable in many respects to the direct course; and the French, had they been able to have retained possession of Egypt, would probably have been disappointed in their expectation of seeing Alexandria regain its antient consequence †.

As there is every prospect of our being frequently called to travel in our great chairs to the land of Egypt, we cannot deem it advisable to re-discuss the narrative of M. Sonnini: but, since some specimen of this new version may be expected, we will indulge our readers with an extract:

'Having spent upwards of five months in travelling over Upper Egypt, that is to say, over an extent in latitude of about a hundred and eighty leagues, watered by the Nile above Cairo, and terminating at the cataracts or at the tropic, and having frequently resided in

* The port of Alexandria he calls infamous and detestable.

† All circumstances must be alike to produce the like effect.

the principal parts of that country, I have been enabled to obtain sufficient knowledge of it to express my opinion on the expedition of the French. There are so many people who speak on this subject, without being acquainted either with the nature of the soil or climate of Egypt, or with the manners of its inhabitants; there are so many encomiasts, as insipid as they are ignorant; so many perfidious detractors; that, perhaps, some degree of interest will be excited by the candid and free language of an observer, jealous of the glory and power of his country, to whom the adulation of the slave, and the gloomy ill-humour of the cynic, are equally unknown, and who cannot be denied the privilege, if not of being attended to or consulted, at least of speaking with some advantage upon a subject of which he has taken no small pains to acquire the best information.

'It has been seen in the course of this work, that I considered the project of replacing our distant, and, perhaps, insecure colonies by another colony, the proximity of which to the mother-country, the almost miraculous fecundity of its soil, the facility of its culture, its singular situation, which makes it the emporium of the commerce of the richest nations, its vicinity to countries the most fruitful in valuable productions; lastly, the ease and dispatch with which communications might be maintained between France and Egypt, render that colony of far higher importance; all these considerations induced me to regard this project as a happy conception, a sublime idea, and its execution as one of those rare acts which render nations illustrious, and which bear the internal and striking stamp of immortality.

'In fact, the possession of Egypt would ensure to an industrious and enlightened nation the commerce of the Levant and of Barbary, as well as that of the opulent country of Yemen. The Indian seas carrying their waters through a long gulf into its sands, afford the greatest facility to navigation and commerce, the sources of inappreciable wealth, especially when the canal of communication between the Nile and the Arabian Gulf, one of the most considerable and most useful works of the ancient kings of Egypt, shall have been discovered and again perfectionated. The river itself, then better known in its course, will be disencumbered from the obstacles which now obstruct its navigation, and will, in security, and at a moderate expense, convey the gold and other productions which nature has placed under the scorching climate of the interior of Africa; while the sun-burnt Moor, the indefatigable broker of these fiery regions, will forsake the route of the coasts of Africa, and conduct his caravans into Egypt, as soon as he is certain of there finding safety and protection, as well as an abundance of the articles which constitute his returns. Connexions founded upon trade and interest, but unfettered by all ambition of religious conquest, the pious mania of injudicious missionaries, and which has excluded the Europeans from an interesting and immense country, will be established with the Abyssinians, whose territories are watered by the same river. With new nations, new riches will be brought to light; and in gradually and successively extending these communications, a knowledge will be acquired of a part of the globe, into the bosom of which neither the heroes of an-

tiquity, nor the boldest adventurers of modern times, have hitherto been able to penetrate.

'In speaking of discoveries, I have indicated the only kind of conquest which philosophy sanctions, and which occasions neither the spilling of blood nor the shedding of tears; that which alone affords a pure and real enjoyment, and which an enlightened people places in the highest rank. Egypt will likewise become the seat of the arts and sciences; and the riches resulting from this source will have a wider and more generous destination, since their diffusion will extend to every nation in the world.

'Agriculture will assume a new aspect; and, being better understood, will add the treasures of plenty to an accumulation of wealth already so considerable. I have enumerated the principal productions of Egypt; I have mentioned those, the culture of which might be attempted with success, and which, when concentrated, will eclipse the most valuable commodities our most wealthy colony affords. The limits of fertility will be enlarged, at least, as far as the chains of mountains which seem to mark its boundaries on both sides of the Nile; and perhaps industry, guided by science, will even discover the means of establishing vegetation upon the sandy and desert plains, which, behind these mountains, stretch to the east and to the west.

'But what would not fail to happen in favourable circumstances, is retarded by those which have attended the French expedition to Egypt. War, it is universally admitted, is the most unpropitious period for the establishment of colonies. Like a consuming conflagration, it burns, it destroys every thing that it approaches; commerce, agriculture, all the sources of public prosperity, are dried up or annihilated; the bright flame of the torch with which the genius of the arts and sciences strives to enlighten mankind, grows dim at the aspect of public calamities, and is at length extinguished by the tears which misfortune every where causes to flow. The destructive breath of ambitious passions stifles the voice of philosophy; every kind of good vanishes, while every kind of evil accumulates. Instead of fostering waters, the earth is inundated with blood, producing a fertility at which nature revolts. Ravage succeeds to culture, and scarcity takes the place of abundance. All sorts of misery occupy the ensanguined stage of the theatre which infuriate war erects; and the man of sensibility, his soul overwhelmed with grief, and his heart worn out with agony, indignantly beholds the atrocious beings who, in the course of an ambitious career, cruelly sport with the happiness and the lives of mankind. The ferociousness of such men has no counterpart in nature; tigers even do not gorge themselves with the blood of tigers *.

'Without peace, no real happiness can exist; without peace, no society can prosper. If these incontestable truths be applied to the expedition to Egypt, it will be easy to perceive that the new colony, desolated by the double scourge of intestine commotions and external

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'* ——— *parcit*
Cognatis maculis similis fera. JUVENAL.'

war,

war, cannot acquire a flourishing condition. The various tribes by whom it is inhabited, and whom it would, perhaps, have been better policy to dispose for a revolution, than to attack in the field, animated by an inordinate fanaticism, founded upon the grossest ignorance, and excited, besides, by the enemies of France and of general tranquillity, will abandon the cultivation of the soil, or destroy the crops it may have produced. The fields are overrun by warriors, and covered with all the implements used in battle; lands, which a succession of ages had seen decorated with the richest harvests, are astonished at being shaded by encampments. The labours which the art of war requires cannot be executed but to the detriment of that of agriculture. Several spots on the surface of the earth thus change both their aspect and nature; and it will easily be conceived how prejudicial these partial injuries are in a country where fertility was, in a manner, merely factitious, and where it cannot subsist without the succours which the people of ancient Egypt multiplied with so much ingenuity and skill.

'The devastation which the wants of a large army produce, and military operations, in general, are so many wounds inflicted on agriculture. The trees, which are so valuable in Egypt, where every sort of wood is very scarce, will fall beneath the axe of necessity or of malevolence; plantations, of many years standing, which afforded a necessary shelter against the heat of the climate, will be destroyed; and ever-verdant groves, loaded with agreeable and cooling fruits, will share a similar fate. So that at the moment when peace shall be restored, the ravages of war and of barbarism should be repaired, before any amelioration is attempted; an immense task, but not beyond the courage and activity of the French.'

It hence appears that the sanguine expectations from the Egyptian expedition, conceived at the commencement of the work, were considerably abated before the author drew to a conclusion. Events gradually dissipated the illusion, and supposed advantages were more than counterbalanced by real evils. The Ophthalmia * of Egypt is alone sufficient to deter Europeans from settling there; and we question whether there be an individual in the French army, who wish to repeat the experiment of an invasion of Egypt.

After every allowance is made to Dr. Hunter on the score of the *currens calamus*, it must be granted that the present translator appears to be more intimately acquainted with the French language; and that, as a Natural Historian, he is manifestly superior: but these claims to pre-eminence should have been silently manifested; or, if pressed on the public by the invidious mode of comparison, they should have been urged in a manner which would have been less disagreeable to the reader, and more creditable to the writer.

* We understand that there are above a thousand men among the remains of the French army in Egypt, who have lost their sight.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1800.

ARTS, &c.

Art. 13. *The Repertory of Arts and Manufactures*, consisting of original Communications, Specifications of Patent Inventions, and Selections of useful practical Papers from the Transactions of the Philosophical Societies of all Nations; &c. &c. 8vo. Vol. VII. —XI. 9s. 6d. each. Boards. Nichols, &c. 1799.

OUR readers will learn, from this brief *notice*, that this very useful and curious *Repertory* has progressively advanced to its eleventh volume. For what we have already observed, in explanation of the nature and design of the undertaking, we may refer to the 22d vol. of our New Series, p. 460, and to vol. xxv. p. 118.

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 14. *An Essay on the Education of Young Ladies.* Addressed to a Person of Distinction. 8vo. 2s. Cadell jun. and Davies.

As a letter from one friend to another on the subject of the education of daughters, this essay may have obtained credit: but, though it shews that the author is a man of some reflection, it is not of sufficient importance to secure the public notice.—A school education is here recommended for young ladies, in preference to a domestic one; and the study of the Latin language is advised instead of the French. For the former opinion, as far as it respects the daughters of our nobility and gentry, there appears to be more reason than for the latter. A *lady*, if she does not travel herself, may be supposed to be thrown into the company of those who have travelled, and of foreigners; and it is of more importance that she should be acquainted with the general language of foreign courts, than with a dead language. French is now what Latin was formerly.

Had not this writer confined his remarks to the Education of *Young Ladies*, we should have been inclined to express a doubt of the wisdom of recommending a school in preference to a home education; provided that by a *school* he means *a boarding-school*; where the daughter is entirely taken from the superintendance of the mother, and is generally introduced to ideas and habits foreign to those of her family and rank in life. We are disposed to think that the daughters of tradesmen, and of persons in the middle classes of life, should enjoy the advantages of a school education without being cut off from their homes. There would not be so many unhappy females, had they not been educated above their sphere. The credit of day-schools for females is not sufficiently supported. For the sake of accomplishments, we endanger their virtue. Hopes of pleasure, shew, and ambition, are excited by the present mode of female education, which cannot be *generally* gratified; and many, who are thus unfitted for the duties of their proper station, sacrifice their innocence at the shrine of vanity.

Art. 15. *Some Hints to young Women engaged in rearing Infants*, or educating Children either in private Families or Schools. 12mo. 2s. Half bound. Newbery. 1799.

This little volume consists chiefly of quotations from different authors on the subject of education. The selection appears to be executed with judgment; and, like every other work which tends to make mankind think on this important subject, it is entitled to a share of praise and attention. O.W.

Art. 16. *Of Education founded upon Principles.* Part I. By Thomas Northmore. 12mo. pp. 86. 2s. Boards. Reynolds. 1800.

Mr. Northmore is an advocate for private education; and he seems, from this work, to be uncommonly attached to antient maxims and examples, and to the modern writers on this subject, Rousseau and Godwin. Do

Art. 17. *The Spoiled Child;* or, Indulgence counteracted. By Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Half bound. Vernor and Hood.

Mrs. Pilkington might have called her publication, 'the spoiled child' *reformed, or recovered and rescued.* We should wish to believe that the early removal of parents can seldom (if ever) prove a benefit to their children: yet so it happened to Mrs. P.'s Sir Charles Fitzowen. Born amid affluence, indulged, pampered, soothed, and encouraged in all his humours and follies, he was in the high road to become an intolerable burthen to others, and to bring complete destruction on himself: when the death of his nearest relatives threw him into wiser and better hands, whose firm yet gentle conduct awakened his own powers of thought, and instead of a vicious, insulting tyrant, or debauched and selfish rake, produced an useful and honourable character.

The short narrative is intermixed with incidents and tales, which engage the attention of the reader; though the style of some of them may possibly be rather too high. Hi.

Art. 18. *James Manners, Little John, and their Dog Bluff.* By Elizabeth Helme, jun. 12mo. pp. 137. Darton and Harvey. 1799.

An instructive and amusing little volume. We find a happy contrast of two youths, foster-brothers, James in a higher station, John in one very inferior; and faithful Bluff forms no unimportant part of the *trio*. Except in affluence, John has greatly the advantage of his *friend*, if he might venture so to call Sir James: honest, diligent, contented, manly, humane, and affectionate, he represents what many in lower stations have formerly been, what some still are, and what more might be, notwithstanding the uncommon disadvantages of the present time. His conversation with the trusty *Bluff*, and his reproofs for supposed misbehaviour, are natural and interesting. John, whose gratitude and attachment are invariable, proved of the utmost service to his once wealthy friend, whose caprice and extravagance immerged him in distress and poverty. Happily for him, there was some foundation of natural good sense, so that affliction brought him to perceive and to acknowlege his errors. By the advice and assist-

ance

ance afforded by John, and John's plain but respectable father, he attained in a humble station that comfort and satisfaction which he had never known, when wealth and luxury surrounded him on every side. In a course of time, the arrival of an uncle from the East Indies, united with other circumstances, re-instated him in those possessions of which by vice and bad companions he had been deprived. He now appears a man of true honour, benevolence, and virtue.—'Blessed is the man, (says the uncle,) who never strayed from the path of rectitude; but no less favoured is he, who is stopped in the career of vice, and led back to virtue.'

Hi.

IRELAND.

Art. 19. *Observations on Dr. Duigenan's "Fair Representation of the present Political State of Ireland;"* particularly, with respect to his Strictures on a Pamphlet entitled "The Case of Ireland Reconsidered." By Patrick Lattin, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1800.

In our Review for March 1799, p. 337, we gave an account of "The Case of Ireland Reconsidered;" a performance which we perused with much satisfaction, on account of the spirit and temper with which it had been written:—its object was the defence of the author's brethren of the Roman Catholics of Ireland, against the prejudices and misrepresentations by which they had been calumniated, respecting both their religious and political principles. Dr. Duigenan, however, not deeming so favourably of that performance, severely animadverted on it in his "Fair Representation of the present political State of Ireland;" which was mentioned in M. Rev. vol. xxx. p. 336. In that performance, Dr. D. not only bore very hard on the whole body of Irish Roman Catholics in general, but in particular on the writer of "The Case;" to whom, it now appears, the Doctor is obliged for the "*Retort Courteous*" at present before us; who has taken satisfaction of Dr. D. in his own way; and in whom, truly, we think the Doctor has met with an opponent of no mean consideration. Mr. L. is certainly a man of respectable literary qualifications, and in his courage and prowess, the Roman Catholic cause, particularly with regard to the state of Ireland, has met with a very competent advocate.

With respect to some *personalities* which fell from the sharply pointed pen of Dr. D. and of which Mr. L. had, we suppose, just reason to complain, we understand that he has had recourse to the interference of the law; and that he has obtained a verdict against the Doctor's bookseller, with considerable damages.—It cannot be expected, however, that *we* should approve this method of settling literary disputes;—it takes the business out of *our* hands.

Art. 20. *The Speech of the Right Hon. John, Earl of Clare, Lord High Chancellor of Ireland,* in the House of Lords of Ireland, on a Motion made by him, Feb. 10, 1800, "That in order to promote and secure the essential Interests of Great Britain and Ireland, and to consolidate the Strength, Power, and Resources of the British Empire, it will be advisable to concur in such Measures as may

best tend to unite the two Kingdoms, in such Manner, and in such Terms and Conditions, as may be established by Acts of the respective Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland." 8vo. pp. 101. Dublin printed, *by Authority*; London reprinted by Wright, Piccadilly.

As the subject of this learned oration is now brought to what, among medical men, is termed "a perfect crisis," our readers will not desire that we should enter into particulars respecting the speech now before us: but the following passage, taken from the concluding paragraph, will serve to shew the ardour with which the noble orator has laboured in favour of the proposed union:

'It is with cordial sincerity, and a full conviction that it' [the proposed measure,] 'will give to this my native country, lasting peace and security for her religion, her laws, her liberty, and her property, and increase of strength, riches, and trade, and the final extinction of national jealousy and animosity, that I now propose to this grave assembly for their adoption an entire and perfect union of the kingdom of Ireland with Great Britain. If I live to see it completed, to my latest hour I shall feel an honourable pride in reflecting on the little share which I may have in contributing to effect it.'

Art. 21. *Practical Observations on the proposed Treaty of Union between the Legislatures of Great Britain and Ireland*, &c. By John Gray, LL. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Becket, &c. 1800.

This is a sensible and useful pamphlet; not filled with vague declamation, but containing valuable matter, deserving perusal from all those who take any interest in this most important question.

The author proposes that, in settling those alterations in the King's titles which the union will require, the words *King of France* should be omitted; and that the insignia in the armorial bearings, which have relation to that title, shall give place to such as are emblematical of the union:—he advises a land-tax to be established in Ireland, to be wholly expended on erecting a Royal Dockyard at Kerry, or any other more eligible situation on the Southern coast of that country:—he suggests that two East India ships should land their cargoes at Dublin, to save the Irish the trouble and expence of coming to London to purchase tea, &c.;—and he recommends a land-tax for the whole empire, in proportion to the value of the land.

The greater part of the pamphlet is occupied by discussing the advantages of this latter species of revenue; which, according to Dr. Gray, may be expected in time to supersede all the duties on imports and exports, and on home consumption; and thus to enable us to convert the ports of Great Britain and Ireland into free ports.

FRANCE.

Art. 22. *Resolutions of the Society of the Friends of the Republican Constitution at L.....* against the Constitution of the Year VIII. of the French Republic. Addressed to the GOOD CITIZENS, sitting on the 15th Nivose, Year VIII. 5th January 1800, old Style. 8vo. 6d. Lowe.

This may be regarded as a bill of indictment, or articles of impeachment, against Bonaparte; charging him with a series of high crimes

crimes and misdemeanours against the State, completed by a traiterous usurpation of the chief government of France.—We are ignorant of the authority or authenticity of this paper; the present translation of which is accompanied by a copy of the original French. A *Nota Bene* by the editor tells us that 'only a few copies of these Resolutions have appeared in France, the minister Fouché having caused the edition to be seized.'

POETIC, &c.

Art. 23. *The Caldron*, or Follies of Cambridge. A Satire. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

Of this poem, we think that the versification far exceeds the matter and imagery. Let us take a specimen:

'First I survey the stern divan that dwell
In the lone horrors of yon silent cell,
Where dusty folios grace an unswept room,
Where cobwebs cast a consecrated gloom,
Curves leagu'd with curvoids rusty falchions wield,
And Calculation shakes her Gorgon shield,
And Wit and Wisdom their lost sons deplore,
Whelm'd in the depths of analytic lore.
The stern divan, on demonstration bent,
Brook not that aught suspend the firm intent.
History is trash, and Criticism a curse,
And sage Philosophy, a babbling nurse.
No grace can sooth them, and no muse can move;
'Tis Milton sings—but what does Milton prove?
Dead but to speculation, they behold
Problems their murky mysteries unfold.
Fancy disgusts: scarce Truth herself can please:
Not Newton charms them in the mask of ease.'

What is here meant by the stern *divan*? why is the shield of calculation *Gorgonian*? surely this epithet could not arise from so puerile an idea, as that of the connection of the etymological meaning of the word calculation with that of Gorgonian, as relating to the effect of Medusa's head in turning every thing to stone.—The satire is not particularly directed against the follies of Cambridge, but also at the follies of the age, the passion of young men for gambling, Newmarket, lounging, driving, &c. The machinery of Hecate, the Weird Sisters, and the Caldron, seem useless: every thing might have been said that has been said, without their introduction. The melody and strength of the verses, we have already observed, far exceed their sense and ideal force: but we wonder that the author should not have been more attentive to the propriety of imagery in his first four lines:

'Mid Scotia's wilds, unknowing and unknown,
On silent wing my noon of life has flown,
And evening bears me with declining light
To the dread confines of sepulchral night.'

Why does the *noon* of life fly on silent wing? If this image could be justified by classical or other authority, the next line would be objectionable, 'And evening *bears* me,' &c. R. Wood.

Art. 24. *Cupid and Psyche.* A Mythological Tale, from the Golden Ass of Apuleius. 8vo. 2s. Wright. 1799.

This poem possesses considerable merit. The versification is generally easy and harmonious, and the imagery is lively and spirited. The following description of Psyche discovering Cupid is animated and poetical:

'Her mantle o'er them Darkness throws,
On the UNKNOWN soft languors creep,
Who leaves his false one to repose
In the more faithful arms of sleep.

'Now trembling, now distracted; bold,
And now irresolute she seems;
The blue lamp glimmers in her hold,
And in her hand the dagger gleams.

'Prepar'd to strike she verges near,
The blue light glimmering from above,
The HIDEOUS SIGHT expects with fear,
—And gazes on the GOD OF LOVE!

'Not such a young and frolic child
As poets feign, or sculptors plan;
No, no, she sees with transport wild,
Eternal beauty veil'd in man.

'His cheek's ingrain'd carnation glow'd
Like rubies on a bed of pearls,
And down his ivory shoulders flow'd
In clustering braids his golden curls.

'Soft as the cygnet's down his wings,
And as the falling snow-flake fair,
Each light elastic feather springs,
And dances in the balmy air.

'The pure and vital stream he breathes,
Makes e'en the lamp shine doubly bright,
With its gay flame enamour'd wreathes,
And gleams with scintillating light.

'There loosely strung that bow was hung,
Whose twanging cord Immortals fear,
And on the floor his quiver flung,
Lay, stor'd with many an arrow, near.

'Grasp'd in her sacrilegious hands,
She with the arrows play'd, and laugh'd—
The crimson on her finger stands,
She's wounded by the poison'd shaft!

'The red blood riots in her veins,
Her feverish pulses wildly beat,

'Whilst

'Whilst every waken'd fibre strains
And throbs with palpitating heat.

'With eyes, where sparkling rapture swims,
She contemplates his sleeping grace,
Hangs fondly o'er his well-turn'd limbs,
And joins to his her fervid face.

'But as her views intent to foil,
Or as that form it long'd to kiss,
Dropt from the lamp the burning oil,
Arous'd him from his dreams of bliss.

'Sudden loud thunders shake the skies,
Th' enchanted palace sinks around,
And sanguine-streaming fires arise,
Meteorous from the trembling ground.

'And swift as when in fury hurls
JOVE's red right arm the forky light,
The wounded Godhead eddying whirls
Into the heaven of heavens his flight.' O.W.

Art. 25. *Grecian Prospects*; a Poem in two Cantos. By Mr. Polwhele. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Chapple.

In this poem, a Welsh bard is supposed to be contemplating a beautiful prospect in the isle of Lesbos; and, as the objects sink before him in the shades of night, he laments the present degraded situation of the Grecian States. Then falling into a slumber, the guardian genius of Greece appears before him; corrects his mistaken notions as to the hopeless degeneracy of the natives; shews him all Greece and the Grecian Isles illuminated with a supernatural splendor, and the British fleet delivering Cephalonia and Corcyra from Gallic tyranny; and foretells the revival of Grecian glory under the auspices of Britain.—An heroic tale is added in a postscript, originally forming part of the poem, but which was detached from a suspicion of its being defective in the unities.

In the execution of this poem, the author displays much classical taste and knowlege; and he seems to possess a considerable store of information concerning the present state of Greece and the Grecian Isles, of which he has agreeably contrived to give a partial detail in the notes. The subject of the poem is of an interesting nature, well adapted to the enthusiasm of the Pindaric Muse; and the style, images, and sentiments, possess in general a correspondent elevation. It appears to us, however, that a too anxious desire of avoiding what is tame, prosaic, and mean, has rendered the author in many respects inflated and obscure, by a puzzling inversion of style, and a too frequent use of obsolete and affected words. There is also a meretriciousness of splendor, arising from too profuse an introduction of gaudy epithets, and too liberal an accession of "alliteration's artful aid." Do

LAW.

Art. 26. *The Office of Sheriff:* shewing its History, Antiquity, Powers, and Duties; the Manner of appointing the High Sheriff,

his Under-Sheriff, and other Deputies; also the Election of Sheriffs of London and Middlesex, with the Bye-laws of the City relating thereto, and other useful Matter; together with the Nature of Actions by and against Sheriffs, including all the modern Determinations to the End of Trinity Term last, with necessary Precedents to Returns of Writs, &c. The 2d Edition, corrected and considerably improved. To which is added, the Office and Duty of Coroner, with an Appendix of useful Precedents. By John Impey of the Inner Temple, Author of 'The Modern Pleader,' calculated for the Office of an Attorney: and 'The Practice of the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas.' 8vo. pp. 800. 12s. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

When we consider the powers and duties attached to the office of Sheriff, it becomes a matter of considerable importance that a full, distinct, and accurate treatise on this subject should exist. The authority of this officer is partly judicial and partly ministerial; and he is, in his own county, the principal conservator of the king's peace. In his judicial capacity, he hears and determines all causes not involving the value of more than forty shillings; and in his ministerial capacity, he is bound to execute all process issuing out of the King's courts of justice.

A comprehensive and useful work entitled, *Officium Vicecomitum*, was published in folio in the years 1682 and 1700, from the papers of Michael Dalton, a Master in Chancery, and author of the *Justice*;—and in the years 1710, 1718, and 1727, the Complete Sheriff (in 8vo) appeared, to which was added the Office and Duty of a Coroner. From that period to the year 1786, when Mr. Impey published the first edition of the present work, (which we noticed in our 80th vol. p. 266,) nothing on the subject has (to our knowlege) been made public. The author has now rendered his volume more worthy of the acceptance of the profession, by the diligence and attention which he has bestowed on it: all the cases applicable to this branch of our law, which have been decided in our courts down to the end of the last Trinity Term, have been inserted.

The office and power of a Coroner are also, like those of the Sheriff, either judicial or ministerial, but principally of the former description. Since Mr. Umfreville's publication (in 1761) on the subject of this very antient officer of our law, who in some cases is the substitute of the Sheriff in executing civil process, no tract has been printed. Mr. Impey's consideration of this subject is in course a valuable accession to his work; and indeed he has rendered it a very useful compilement by the variety of information which he has given, and the judgment with which he has arranged his materials. S.R.

Art. 27. *The Practical Register in Chancery.* With the Addition of the Modern Cases, and a copious Index. By John Wyatt of the Inner Temple, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 500. 9s. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

The Practical Register in Chancery was published anonymously in the year 1714, and has always been considered as an accurate and useful collection of the standing orders and rules of the court. It had the honour of being praised by Lord Hardwicke, and of being

recommended to the attention of the profession as the best work on the subject.—The utility of compilations of this description is evident, and sensibly felt by practitioners. The scarcity of the book, and the reputation which it deservedly bears, have induced Mr. Wyatt to publish the present edition; in which many valuable additions will be found, that incontestably prove the diligence and judgment of the editor. S.R.

Art. 28. *A System of the Law of Marine Insurances*, with three Chapters on Bottomry; on Insurances on Lives; and on Insurances against Fire. By James Allan Park, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn. The 4th Edition, with considerable Additions. Royal 8vo. 14s. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

We have on more than one occasion mentioned this work in terms of commendation; and every succeeding impression has justified the praise which we have bestowed. The value of the present edition is considerably increased, by the author having inserted the various important cases on this subject of our law, which have been decided in the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas since the year 1796.—An account of the nature and plan of this publication may be found in our 80th vol. p. 344. S.R.

Art. 29. *A Treatise of Equity*. With the Addition of Marginal References and Notes, by John Fonblanque, Esq. Barrister at Law. Second Edition, with Additions. 2 Vols. 8vo. 19s. Boards. Clarke and Son. 1799.

In our 13th and 15th volumes, N. S. we gave an account of the first edition of this valuable treatise, which has usually been ascribed by the profession to Mr. Ballow of Lincoln's Inn, though its author is not certainly known; the work having been originally published without a name.—The additions made by the present editor entitle him to high praise, on account of the diligence and judgment which they display; they are indeed so considerable, as greatly to exceed the size of the original publication.

In this edition, the cases applicable to the subject, which have been decided since the appearance of the former impression, are inserted.—We have not often in the course of our reading been favoured with an opportunity of perusing a work, from which we have derived so much information, so appositely and accurately arranged, as from this Treatise of Equity; and we recommend it with perfect confidence to the attention of the public. S.R.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 30. *Remarks on the Prefaces prefixed to the first and second Volumes of a Work entitled, The Holy Bible*, or Books accounted Sacred by Jews and Christians, faithfully translated, &c. &c. by the Rev. Alexander Geddes, LL.D. in four Letters addressed to him, by the Rev. John Earle. 12mo. 2s. Booker, &c.

The bold criticisms and conjectures of Dr. Geddes, in the prefaces to his translation of the Bible, must inevitably shock the prejudices and excite the displeasure of a great part of the Christian world. We therefore are not surprized at this publication, which appears

to come from the pen of one of the doctor's catholic brethren: but it rather evinces the author's disapprobation of Dr. Geddes's manner of speaking of the Hebrew Scriptures, than his ability to contend with him. Dr. Geddes's intrepid assertions demand examination: but they are not to be overthrown by such flippant remarks as are contained in these letters.—We mean not to engage in the controversy: but most of what Mr. Earle has advanced is in our opinion very superficial, and admits of easy refutation. **Mo-y.**

Art. 31. *Four Sermons*, preached at the fifth General Meeting of the Missionary Society, May 8th, 9th, 10th, 1799: by the Rev. T. Finlay, Paisley. Rev. J. Tozer, Taunton. Rev. J. Moody, Warwick. Rev. G. C. Brodbelt, Aston-Sandford. To which are added, the Report of the Directors, the Proceedings of the Meeting, and a List of the Subscribers. By order of the Directors, published for the Benefit of the Society. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Chapman.

When these discourses were delivered, the success which had attended the labours of the Missionaries* opened to the society the most flattering prospects. In the introduction, it is remarked, 'each annual meeting of the society, to the fifth, which we now record, has increased in zeal, vigour, and unanimity; indeed, the favourable circumstances which have attended the first efforts of the society, have strongly inscribed the Divine approbation on the objects to which they have been directed, and warrant us, at least, to hope, that the Lord will eventually crown them with success.'

The first sermon is on *The universal Diffusion of Divine Knowlege; with its happy Effects.* It was preached before the society at Surrey Chapel, May 8th, 1799, by the Rev. Mr. Finlay, who took his text from Isaiah, xi. 6—9. "*The wolf also shall dwell with the lamb,*" &c. The second sermon is on *The Excellency of Prayer in aid of Missionary Exertions*, by the Rev. Mr. Tozer. The third, by the Rev. Mr. Moody, has for its subject, *The Dominion of Jesus favourable to the Heathen:* the text from Zechariah, ix. 10. "*He shall speak peace to the heathen.*" The fourth sermon treats of *The Prophecy of the Extension of the Church:* from Isaiah, lxii. 6, 7. by the Rev. Mr. Brodbelt.

The subjects of these discourses, as well as the manner in which they are treated, are expressive of the strong hopes entertained, that the endeavours of the society would be crowned with that success which the members were encouraged to expect from such prosperous beginnings.

The report of the directors, which was read at a meeting of the society held at Haberdashers'-Hall, (May 8th, 1799,) contains an account of the proceedings to that date, and of their future views and prospects. Respecting the latter, the following curious information is given: 'Our hopes, likewise, have been raised by an unexpected solicitation from a General Bowles, who was providentially led to reside in London a few months, to send Missionaries to the vast nation of Creek Indians, situated on the Gulf of Mexico. Being one of the chiefs of that nation, and pleased, on inquiry, with the objects of our institution, he promised to lay the matter before a

* See the first article in this Review.

national

national council on his return, and favour us immediately with the result. Should his proposal be generally approved by them, we trust, you will empower the directors to accept the invitation, and send whatever number of persons may appear best suited for the work.'

The following statement bears testimony to the exertions and zeal of the society: 'We have eighty-nine persons already sent out; including women and children. Some of these must be maintained in their stations at a large annual expence; and our calls in Providence will speedily require us to double the number.'

At the end of the sermons, is an alphabetical list of the contributors to the Missionary Society, with the sums contributed: also an account of the disbursements. Capt. B...y.

Art. 32. *The Importance of Religion considered*, and the relative Duties it inculcates; with Meditations, occasional Prayers, and Hymns: designed for the assistance of Youth. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Scatcherd. 1799.

This work has a good tendency; though to some parts we might offer objections, and though in some instances the author appears not perfectly consistent.—He tells us, respecting revelation, 'What is *clear* in Christianity, we shall find to be sufficient: what is *dubious*, will appear unnecessary to be decided; and what is most *obscure*, will teach us to bear with the opinions which others may have formed on the same subject.' This is rational and scriptural; yet, when he comes to speak, as he occasionally does, though rather in a slight and incidental way, of fundamentals and orthodoxy, it may not exactly correspond. One chapter brought to our recollection some of the earlier publications of that respectable and venerable man the late Rev. William Law, some of whose works furnish most excellent, interesting, and engaging instructions, when separated from those chimeras among which, in his last years particularly, he seems to have been bewildered and almost overwhelmed.—In the concluding pages of the present performance, we find a slight, very slight account of the several books of the Sacred writings. It is concluded by a few hymns, chiefly selected from Dr. Doddridge's volumes. Hi.

Art. 33. *Influence of Religion in promoting the Peace and Prosperity of Kingdoms and States.* 4to. 1s. Longman. 1799.

'Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, observes in a letter which he wrote to his friend and minister, Chancellor Oxenstiern, not long before he was assassinated,—"However the cause be good and just, the event of war is uncertain on account of our sins."—Such is the motto of this discourse, which is declamatory, and somewhat rhapsodical; abounding in quotations from Latin authors, and from others of more modern date. When and where, or whether, it was preached, we are not told: but, if we may trust the title-page, it has arrived at a second edition. Its general position is doubtless true and important, that religion is the best security for public and private peace and happiness: but to effect this purpose it must be somewhat more, somewhat far beyond what is merely nominal, political, and external.—The appendix calls our attention to the fall of Athens, Tyre, Corinth, and other famous cities and states. Hi.

POLITICAL, &c.

Art. 34. *Considerations concerning Peace.* By a Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1800.

A lively and ardent advocate for the return of peaceable times here states the common arguments on both sides of the Great Question, "Peace or War?" according to the present circumstances; and this he does with as much fairness and impartiality, as can reasonably be expected from him who openly stands forth as the cordial friend of one of the two alternatives, and the decided enemy of the other. There is an air of novelty in his mode of thinking and reasoning on this most highly interesting subject, which will keep the reader's attention alive to the matter proposed to his consideration: but some of the writer's notions may appear fanciful; as where he supposes that our Prime Minister will in course, *as Minister*, prefer *war*. He proposes, indeed, a method for *inducing* Mr. Pitt to become the immediate and happy instrument of peace to this country: but, for the particulars of his plan, we must refer to his pamphlet, p. 5, *et seq.*

The writer's arguments, however, in support of his idea of official influence over a Minister's conduct in regard to Peace and War, do not appear such as will be universally deemed unworthy of the serious regard of the public.—On the whole, it were to be wished that this little tract could obtain a general circulation, and be seriously perused among those ranks of people who have leisure to reflect, and inclination to judge, with the utmost freedom from *party influence*:—but what is our hope, at present, that among us such freedom exists!

Art. 35. *Speech of the Right Hon. William Pitt*, delivered in the House of Commons, Feb. 3, 1800, on a Motion for an Address to the Throne, approving of the Answers returned to the Communications from France relative to a Negotiation for Peace. 8vo. 2s. Wright. 1800.

The adversaries of Mr. Pitt never call in question his oratorical powers; which seem on no occasion to have been more successfully exerted than on the present. We doubt not that the speech before us will be perused on account of its eloquence, and of the ability which it displays, when the tide of ages shall have swept out of view the important question of which it treats.—The publication apparently possesses more of fidelity and accuracy than generally belong to those of this class. Why do our orators think it beneath them to preserve from oblivion the efforts of their eloquence? This age, we are certain, would furnish specimens in no respect inferior to those which electrified Greece, and called forth the unbounded applauses of Rome. A regard for their own fame, for the honor of the age, and for the gratification of posterity, constitute not the only reasons to be assigned in favor of this practice. It would make future ages more witnesses of the transactions of the present day; it would add to the incitements to integrity; and it would furnish additional checks to corruption.

The Minister here labours to lay the guilt of aggression to the charge of France; and we think that he has been more successful in

in the present than in any former attempt. Many, who were once decidedly of opinion that France was not really the aggressor, now own that recent publications have very much shaken that opinion: but perhaps the farther disclosure of documents is necessary to a complete solution of this complicated question, now more curious than important.—In the present speech, the character of the French Revolution is ably developed, and the dangers with which it threatens Europe are strongly depicted: we should be glad to have it proved that these dangers are less real than they are here stated to be. The orator's attack on the conduct and character of the chief Consul is as able in its kind, as any thing to be found among the remains of antient, or the happiest displays of modern eloquence. Indignation is worked up to the highest pitch, and made to bear with fearful force upon its object; and while, as a whole, this act of accusation is most powerful, some strokes which occur in the course of it may boast peculiar felicity. The reference to the threat of dictating peace to England on the banks of the Thames, the promise made to Venice and the subsequent conduct, and the comments on the instructions to General Kleber, are of this sort.—If the governors of belligerent states be destined, like the heroes of Homer, to engage in contests of invective, this attack on Bonaparte will furnish a lesson for future combatants. The Consul may have soldiers and commanders who will match those of his enemies: but we think that he will look in vain, throughout the whole territory of the republic, for a champion who can wield the weapons of declamation so dextrously as the British Prime Minister.

Of the other and more important merits of the speech, we need not say much. It has been submitted to a more severe ordeal. Immediately on its delivery, it underwent the examination of the great master of debate, and a more critical and able scrutiny even he never conducted *. Many fair and promising outworks certainly gave way before this masterly attack: but whether the minister has been wholly beaten off the ground, we leave to the determination of the public. To us, the matter appears to stand thus: *primâ facie*, it makes against any power to reject pacific offers: but, if the offers be insidious, if demonstrably they cannot come to a favorable issue, is a state, in compliance with mere ceremony, and to the manifest prejudice of its interests, obliged to listen to such overtures at all times, at the will of its enemy? Was it morally certain that, at the time in question, feasible terms could not have been obtained from France? Would treating at all, at that time, have paralized the alliance? Was there fair ground for expecting, that a farther continuance of the war could reduce France within limits compatible with the interests of Britain, and the safety of Europe; and that a short prolongation of the contest would cause the peace to be more than proportionably secure and durable? Can France have the Alps and the Rhine

* See p. 314. of the Review for March. The public are probably aware that a very correct edition of Mr. Fox's speech has been published by Debrett: that which came into our hands was prior, but far less accurate.

for boundaries, and Switzerland and Holland in her power, without being dangerous to Europe?

These questions must be satisfactorily resolved, before judgment can be given in this cause.—Schemes for punishing Bonaparte and avenging the Bourbons we do not consider to be British concerns: if the Minister be engaged in any such projects, we regret it, and we wholly dissent from him on those points: but, as far as it is his object to reduce the power of France, whether she be republican or monarchical, so as to incapacitate her from disturbing the peace of Europe, and endangering the security of the British empire, every enlightened lover of his country must wish him success.

Art. 36. *Substance of the Speech of the Hon. Thomas Erskine*, in the House of Commons, 3d of February, 1800; on the Motion for an Address to the Throne *approving* the Refusal of Ministers to treat with the French Republic. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

Mr. Erskine's eloquence will always engage the eager attention of the public; and his fixed and consistent political principles are so well known, that no one will wonder at his total *disapprobation* of the *negative* answer given by our government to the late pacific proposal from France. This animated condemnation of the conduct of our Minister, in the present instance, merits preservation among collections of the State-papers of the times.

Art. 37. *Thoughts on the late Overtures of the French Government to this Country*, in a Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt. Written previous to the Recommencement of Hostilities in the Spring of the Year 1800. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard.

This nameless politician highly approves the conduct of our government in rejecting the late pacific overture from France, and as highly compliments Mr. Pitt, in particular, for whatever share he had in that measure. On the other hand, the French Consul is plenteously be-rogu'd, be-fool'd, and be-scoundrel'd, for his impudence: as he doubtless ought to be, *by every loyal, British subject!* A dog! if we but had him here, in Leather-lane, we'd teach him to cry "PEACE, peace, when there is NO PEACE!" *

Art. 38. *The Question of Scarcity plainly stated, and Remedies considered.* With Observations on permanent Measures to keep Wheat at a more regular Price. By Arthur Young, Esq. F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. Richardson. 1800.

Plenty and Scarcity must both make themselves manifest: but in the one case the grower gets too little for his grain, and in the other too much. If there were so little in hand of the crop of 1798, as has been stated, to aid the deficient crop of 1799, the price of wheat in 1798 ought to have been higher than it then was: if the surplus in hand exceeded what has been stated, the present price of corn is too high. The fact is, that, when fear and alarm seize the public mind, and farmers possess themselves with the idea of advantageous markets, it is difficult to elicit the truth in the ordinary methods of inquiry.

* Jer. vi. 14.

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It is certain that what are termed scarce seasons always enrich the agriculturist; and every investigation of a public nature, whether by the Legislature, or by Boards, or by Committees, appointed for the purpose, uniformly effects a rise in the price of grain, and augments the agricultural capital of the kingdom. The question of scarcity is favorable to farmers, and they will answer it with a view to their own interest: how, then, are we to depend on a correspondence with them, as designed to ascertain the quantity of grain? Can we expect them to say to themselves, "we ought to be satisfied with 18l. or 20l. *per* load for our wheat," when, by the least hint of the danger of famine, they are likely to obtain from 25l. to 30l. *per* load? We may fairly suppose that the quantity of corn in the kingdom exceeds their statements: yet it must be owned that, through the visitation of Heaven, the last harvest was unproductive,—that therefore the deficiency is real,—and that an advanced price is necessary and unavoidable.

Mr. Arthur Young has endeavoured to collect and exhibit a variety of facts and inferences on the important subject of his present pamphlet; as,

'I. That an average crop is between 22 and 24 bushels *per* acre.

'II. That the people increase more than cultivation extends *.

'III. That the deficiency amounts to about one-third, and therefore accounts for the scarcity without recurring to any other cause †.

'IV. That the stock in hand last harvest, on an average of the kingdom, was not greater than common.

'V. That the parliamentary measures hitherto proposed are insufficient, however meritorious.

'VI. That the application of oats and barley, reducing the consumption of wheat, have had effect at present, and might with a very extended cultivation of potatoes, complete the remedy.

'VII. That the return of similar situations may be expected, with so increasing a population.

'VIII. That the best prevention is—to render as general as possible the system of cottagers having land for potatoes and cows; and to pass a general inclosure act as speedily as it can be done.'

We strongly approve the hints thrown out by Mr. Young on the subject of giving land to cottagers; and assisting them so to cultivate that land, and to turn it to such an account, as will diminish the consumption of wheaten corn. In inclosure schemes, we fear, this benevolent and (we may add) equitable object is not sufficiently prominent. Commons and wastes are inclosed, and turned over by the

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* This is a position, especially in a time of war, which may be questioned. Are our villages too populous? Are there unemployed men who call out for the breaking up of commons and wastes, that they may be set to work? Is the land already enclosed cultivated to its acmé of improvement?

† If this be true, the peculiar hand of Providence is excluded as the cause of this national calamity. Besides, there must then have been a scarcity every year, for many years back; which will not be admitted.

plough:

plough: but are the poor more comfortable? are the Poor-Rates diminished?

Mr. Young suggests the expediency of registering the acres of wheat and rye sown throughout the kingdom. This may be a wise measure:—but we are not sure of the policy of making public all the details of this pamphlet. They merit the considerations of the Board of Agriculture, to which its Secretary may have submitted them: but the publication of them is not likely to lower the price of grain at Bear-Quay.

Mo.y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 39. *An Essay on the Theory and Practice of Bleaching*, wherein the Sulphuret of Lime is recommended as a Substitute for Pot-Ash. By William Higgins, M. R. I. A. Professor of Chemistry and Mineralogy at the Repository of the Dublin Society. 8vo. 2s. Vernor and Hood. 1799.

In the preface to this treatise, Mr. Higgins claims the honor of having been the first antiphlogistian in England, and of having combated the old doctrine in his Comparative View of the Phlogistic and Antiphlogistic Theories, which fell under our notice in 1789 *; and he seems to think himself hardly treated, in being excluded from the reputation of having contributed to establish the new chemical theory. It rests with the surviving French chemists, to inform us whether they derived any assistance from Mr. Higgins's book; or whether they have yet perused it. He is certainly correct in stating the period at which he declared against phlogiston: but the ignorance of the most eminent chemists, respecting the existence of his book, shews that it had made a very slight impression on the public.

The body of the pamphlet is drawn up with precision, but it contains only well-known facts; if we except the author's recommendation of the sulphuret of lime, as a substitute for the expensive article of pot-ash, in condensing the oxygenated muriatic gas. We shall transcribe his account of the mode of preparing the sulphuret:

'The *sulphuret* of *lime* is prepared in the manner following:—Sulphur, or brimstone in fine powder, four pounds, lime well slaked and sifted, twenty pounds, water sixteen gallons; these are all to be well mixed and boiled for about half an hour in an iron vessel, stirring them briskly from time to time. Soon after the agitation of boiling is over, the solution of the sulphuret of lime clears, and may be drawn off free from the insoluble matter, which is considerable, and which rests upon the bottom of the boiler †. The liquor in this state, is pretty nearly of the colour of small beer, but not quite so transparent.

'Sixteen gallons of fresh water are afterwards to be poured upon the

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* See M. Rev. vol. lxxxi. p. 197.

'† Although *lime* is one of the constituent principles of the *sulphuret*, yet being so intimately united to the sulphur, it has no longer the property of lime; upon the same principle that *sulphuric acid* in sulphat of pot-ash, has not the property of that acid.'

'insoluble

insoluble dregs in the boiler, in order to separate the whole of the sulphuret from them. When this clears (being previously well agitated) it is also to be drawn off and mixed with the first liquor; to these again, thirty-three gallons more of water may be added, which will reduce the liquor to a proper standard for steeping the cloth.

'Here we have (an allowance being made for evaporation, and for the quantity retained in the dregs) sixty gallons of liquor from four pounds of brimstone.

'Although sulphur by itself is not in any sensible degree soluble in water, and lime but very sparingly so, water dissolving but about one seven-hundredth part of its weight of lime; yet the sulphuret of lime is highly soluble *.'

If Mr. Higgins's experiments be accurate, a considerable saving must result from his plan, which well deserves the attention of Government. Fer.r

Art. 40. *The Impolicy of prohibiting the Exportation of Rock-Salt from England to Scotland*, to be refined there, illustrated. By John Girvin. 8vo. pp. 80. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

This writer pleads, with great force and clearness of argument, for permitting the exportation of rock-salt to Scotland, on the same terms on which it is admitted into Ireland. He shews that the effect of the present high price in Scotland is a considerable annual loss to the revenue, by smuggling; and that the Scotish salt-manufacturers would really find their interest in using the saturated solution of rock-salt, in conjunction with sea-water. It is indeed lamentable, that any remains of antient prejudices should prevent the inhabitants of this island from benefiting each other, by a free exchange of their reciprocal productions. D.o

Art. 41. *An Examination of the Merits and Tendency of the Pursuits of Literature.* Part First. By W. Burdon, A. M. formerly Fellow of Emanuel College, Cambridge 8vo. pp. 94. 2s. Conder. 1799.

The Pursuer is here very sharply pursued. Mr. Burdon not merely discusses the tendency of the work proposed to be examined, but follows the anonymous author even to his *adverbs*, *conjunctions*, and *prepositions*, and points out the most inconsiderable misquotations. Here Mr. B. will be thought to manifest a little hypercriticism.—In reply to the question, why he, to whom there is not even an allusion in the "Pursuits," should stand forwards as an examiner and champion, his answer is, that 'it is not the men but the principles which are attacked, that he is anxious to defend;—that he combats the author, not because he has the talent to be dangerous, but because he has the power to misrepresent;—not because he is vigorous, but because he is venomous,' &c. Though Mr. B. allows that the satirist 'has sometimes a rare felicity of expression,' yet, detesting

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'* When the above proportion of lime and sulphur is boiled with only twelve gallons of water, the sulphuret partly crystallizes upon cooling, and when once crystallized, it is not easy of solution.'

his

his principles and mode of satire, he pronounces him to be a contemptible author.

For the present, we shall content ourselves with adding an extract as a specimen of Mr. B.'s manner.

'I will now return to our author, with his minor and his major powers of democracy, and remark, that with singular ingenuity he has included the greater in the lesser, when he tells us, that the minor powers of infidelity might be dispersed, from Voltaire down to Godwin and Paine; this is liberal in the design, and is ingenious in the execution: it is a pity it is not quite intelligible.

"From writers of this character, my thoughts are directed to the professors of *that superstitious corruption* of Christianity, which *originally* gave occasion to those attempts, to which it has pleased Providence to permit a temporary success, to scourge the nations of Europe. I am sure the plain simplicity of the Protestant religion of England could never have suggested so daring, so extensive a project. I have therefore spoken at large of the Roman Catholic religion, *and* its professors, *and* the emigrants and French priests."—From infidelity to popery, is not the common transition, rather the reverse; but I give our author credit for seeing any connection between the two. This is perhaps the most extraordinary passage in the whole book, for the arrogance, illiberality, and ignorance it displays. Our author is here hand in glove with Providence: in short, nothing is hid from him; he can tell to an iota the causes of all the great events in the world. Popery gave occasion to the French Revolution; the success of that Revolution is only temporary, and meant to punish the rest of Europe who have corrupted Christianity, I suppose: but the best of all this is, that our author knows and is convinced that the Protestant religion is plain and simple, that there are no difficulties in its creed, no follies in its discipline, no contradictions in its liturgy, and that our bishops can boast an uninterrupted succession from Christ and his apostles: so thought the papists, and so think they still; and who is to decide between us? but I had forgot, our author is the judge, and all is right. Alas! I doubt we have no infallible criterion but time for all the opinions of men; with our author, their truth or error depends on their being established or not; and if he had lived in the days of Popery, he must have died a Papist: so much for his judgment. Let the author consult Longinus and Quinctilian, to be instructed how frequent copulatives enervate the style of a writer.'

A second part of this work has recently been published, but we received it too late for notice in this Review. Mo-

Art. 42. *A Letter to the Rev. John Milner*, M. A. F. S. A. Author of the Civil and Ecclesiastical History of Winchester, occasioned by his False and Illiberal Aspersions on the Memory and Writings of Dr. Benjamin Hoadly, formerly Bishop of Winchester. By Robert Hoadly Ashe, D. D. 8vo. pp. 96. 2s. 6d. Bickerstaff. 1799.

We are not surprized that Dr. H. Ashe should publicly notice the unhandsome mention made of his celebrated relation Dr. Benjamin Hoadly, by the author of the Civil and Ecclesiastical History of

Winchester*. It is very evident that Mr. Milner, as a catholic, does not admire the character and writings of this truly protestant and liberal-minded Bishop; and that he was resolved to lose no opportunity of giving him what Dr. Johnson calls "*a hard knock.*" On this occasion, Dr. Hoadly Ashe takes up the cudgels, and with zeal and effect fights the battle of his deceased friend. He clearly proves that Mr. M. has committed mistakes in his account of the Bishop, and (what is more) that his remarks are dashed with an acrimonious and illiberal tincture. The reflections on Bishop Hoadly's monument in Winchester cathedral were manifestly designed to stain his memory; and though, perhaps, all that Dr. A. has advanced will not induce Mr. Milner to retract them, he may thank the Dr. for correcting the errors into which he appears to have fallen respecting the Bishop, and may rectify them in a future edition or in a subsequent volume of his work. It is always to be lamented when historians write under the influence of strong prejudices; and though they may gratify transient illiberality, they are sure to offend and disgust impartial posterity.

Mo.y.

Art. 43. *Rambles through Ireland,* by a French Emigrant. Translated from the French of Monsieur de Latocnaye—by an Irishman. 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. Boards. Robinsons, &c. 1799.

An account of Ireland in its *present* state, dictated by an informed, inquisitive, impartial, and philosophic mind, would be a valuable and interesting present to the public. We know little of that country; and yet it is essential to the interests of Ireland, and in course to the common well-being of the empire, that it should be known thoroughly. Many very important changes must have taken place in its œconomy and its circumstances, since the tour of Mr. Yonng was written; yet we have no valuable account of the state of Ireland since that time. Its agriculture has been improved, its manufactures have been increased, its wealth and population greatly augmented, and the manners and principles of its people considerably changed:—but how shall we measure these great improvements and variations in the state of Ireland? A dry detail of revenue accounts, or the interested and distorted testimony of political partizans, are the only documents which we possess to guide us.

These Rambles do not altogether supply this want. The author is a very good-humoured traveller, *toujours gai*, generally droll, and sometimes inquisitive: but he is also in general superficial. Indeed he does not profess much: he modestly entitles himself not a tourist, but a rambler: not a man who travels with the special design of observing and depicting life and manners: but one who wanders from place to place, without any fixed view of acquiring or imparting information.—M. de Latocnaye is one of those unfortunate men whom an attachment to a certain set of political principles, or to those who entertained them, has sent wandering through the world in the character of emigrants; and it was with a view of procuring support in this destitute state that he became a traveller, and a writer of

* See p. 415. of this Review.

his

his travels. He had procured a great variety of recommendatory letters from men of rank in both countries, which secured him an hospitable reception in almost every corner of Ireland in which he travelled; so much so, that, though he spent six months in making the tour of the Irish coast, he was but five times obliged to repose at an inn. He travelled on foot, with no luggage but what he carried on his back, and apparently without any cash but what his friends furnished. In the true spirit of his country, however, his heart was always light, and his imagination lively; and the reader who accompanies his rambles may learn from him, that a man may be poor without being melancholy; and, even with a light purse in a strange country, have his mind in tune for relishing existence.

It was immediately previous to the breaking out of the late rebellion, that M. de Latocnaye rambled through Ireland. The angry symptoms of the late revolt were then manifest, and are noticed by the author in a way which proves him to have been a very impartial and unprejudiced spectator.

We might have made several extracts from this publication, had we not already given sufficient specimens of the author's manner of thinking and writing, in our account of the original French. See M. Rev. N.S. vol. xxvi. p. 208.

Of the translation, we cannot speak very favourably;—the language is not very correct, nor has it any pretensions to elegance. Wall

Art. 44. *Some brief Memoirs of the Life of David Hall;* with an Account of the Life of his Father, John Hall. 12mo. 2s. 6d. bound. Phillips.

David Hall must now have been dead many years; for we find one of his last letters dated A. D. 1755, and it appears that in 1753, he was upwards of seventy years of age: but whether any memoirs concerning him have been published before the appearance of this little volume, we are not informed. He belonged to the society of *Friends*, or *Quakers* as they have been more generally and illiberally denominated,—though not now, we trust, with any intention of disrespect. He was, we conclude, what is called an elder or minister among them; and notwithstanding his immediate employment in life, he appears to have exerted himself greatly in different and distant places, not merely to increase the number of his sect, but to engage them to the love and practice of piety and morality in all its branches. The small-pox, from which he recovered in early life, had nevertheless so debilitated his constitution as to incapacitate him for any trade suitable to his station; he therefore applied with great diligence to attain that share of learning which might qualify him for the instruction of youth; and accordingly he opened and conducted for many years, with reputation and success, as we apprehend, a boarding school at Skipton in Yorkshire. His memoirs and other writings are all in the style of the people with whom he was immediately connected; some of whose principles it is not always easy to explain, or, perhaps, to comprehend: yet they have a simplicity, an earnestness, and a mildness, united with good sense and affection, which recommend them to some regard amid all their peculiarities. To those of his own denomination, without doubt, this publication must be acceptable;

ceptable; and in the perusal, many may possibly find themselves, not wholly without reason, reproved and censured. Others, who are not united with them, should they disapprove its singularities, may yet derive some improvement by attending to the instruction and advice which it offers. Hi.

Art. 45. *A new and general Biographical Dictionary:* containing an historical and critical Account of the Lives and Writings of the most eminent Persons in every Nation; particularly the British and Irish; from the earliest Accounts of Time to the present Period. Wherein their remarkable Actions and Sufferings, their Virtues, Parts, and Learning are accurately displayed. With a Catalogue of their Literary Productions. A new Edition, in fifteen Volumes, greatly enlarged and improved. 8vo. 5l. 5s. Boards. Robinsons, &c.

The numerous advantages resulting from biography have been frequently discussed, and are universally acknowleged. The convenience of information being conveyed in the form of a dictionary is also sensibly felt, as no time is lost in searching after knowlege, which is by this method attained at the moment when it is required.—The present work is enriched with a great variety of important names which appear in no other collection. 'Though this edition (as the preface informs us) is apparently extended only by the addition of three volumes, the actual augmentation is much greater; the volumes being not only, in general, thicker than before, but so printed as to contain in each page four or five lines more than a page of the preceding edition.'

We have thought it incumbent on us, from the magnitude and importance of the publication, to announce it to our readers; though it must be ranked among new editions, which it is not our constant practice to notice.—For our account of the 1st edition, see M. Rev. vol. xxviii. p. 210. also of the 2d edit. vol. lxxvi. p. 210. S.R.

CORRESPONDENCE.

'*For the* MONTHLY REVIEW.

'IN the review of B. Faujas Saint Fond's *Travels in England*, (p. 239, of the last month,) you introduce the following observation and quotation:

"M. Saint Fond was presented by Sir Joseph Banks with two ounces of the seed of a species of hemp obtained from China, of a quality superior to the hemp cultivated in Europe. This, on his return to France, he distributed amongst his most scientific friends; and he relates the success with which it was cultivated in the South of France."

"I wait for peace," says he, "to repay my obligations to the English, for it is no more than just to return that which they have so generously lent us. I should have published, a long time ago, the result of these experiments, but have been prevented by the melancholy remembrance which reminded me, that of eleven persons to whom I gave some of the seed from China, and who, with an enthusiasm for the public interest, devoted their whole attention to its cultivation, eight have

have been dragged to the scaffold, without respect for names signalized by virtue and talents. Buffon was dead—they took his son."

'About the time alluded to by Saint Fond, I received, also, seeds of this species of hemp, through the medium, I think, of the Society of Arts. Some of these were sown at Grove-Hill, and produced plants upwards of ten feet high; but the seeds did not acquire sufficient maturity to vegetate. A manufacturer of hemp made experiments on these plants, and gave me a written detail of the result, and of the superiority of the staple, which account I have mislaid.

'Dr. Madison, of Williamsburg in Virginia, came to England to be consecrated Bishop of Virginia, about the period the seeds were introduced here; an illness under which he laboured occasioned the renewal of our early acquaintance, and on his return to Williamsburg, I sent him about half an ounce of the hemp seed, the receipt of which he acknowledged in a letter dated December 5th, 1791. "The hemp seed I have distributed among some gentlemen who are distinguished for their skill and attention, reserving a sufficiency for an experiment under my own view. Should it succeed according to your expectations, and I think our climate justifies every hope of success, you will have the happiness of having added a new source of real wealth to this country."

'In a subsequent letter, dated June 7th, 1793, he observes: "I have great pleasure in informing you, that the hemp of China, with the seed of which you favoured me, promises to be a valuable acquisition. It grew last year upwards of eleven feet in height; from the seed which was collected, I have now about a quarter of an acre, which is very flourishing, and which will enable me to make a decisive experiment as to its utility or superiority over the native hemp."

'I have been more particular in communicating this narrative, in hopes of its insertion into your Review, which is much read on the Continent of Europe, as well as of the New Hemisphere; and which may hence afford my old acquaintance, Saint Fond, the medium of knowing that this valuable vegetable is still cultivated; and the amiable and truly respectable Prelate, that he may oblige and enrich the community by distributing the seeds, and thereby promoting an important article of manufacture and trade. J. C. LETTSOM.'

'Sambrook-House, Basinghall-Street,
April 4, 1800.'

'*A Young Student's*' letter, dated 7 April, is received. Before long, probably, we shall trouble the writer with an answer according to the address with which he has favored us: but we fear that we shall not be able to command time sufficient to resolve the various points of inquiry which he proposes.

We should be glad to oblige a *Constant Reader*, who dates from Worcester: but his requests would impose a duty on us which is entirely out of our province. At present, certainly, we have not time to answer his questions: if we can find leisure, we may perhaps take farther notice of them in our next Number.

☞ P. 309. l. 9. from bottom, Rev. March, for 'reputable,' r. *respectable*.

*** The APPENDIX to this volume of the Monthly Review will be published with the Number for May, as usual.

For Errata in this number, see the Table of Errata in the Volume, in the Appendix.

APPENDIX

TO THE

THIRTY-FIRST VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Mémoires de l'Institut National, &c. i. e.* Memoirs of the National Institute of the Sciences and the Arts, for the IVth Year of the Republic. Divided into three Volumes, treating, I. *Of the Mathematical and Physical Sciences;* II. *Of the Moral and Political Sciences;* III. *Of Literature and the Fine Arts.* 4to. pp. about 700 each. Paris, 1798. London, imported by De Boffe. Price 3l. sewed.

IT was to counteract the torpor and blighting influence of some collegiate bodies, that associations of ingenious men were formed throughout Europe, about the middle and near the close of the seventeenth century. Drawn from various ranks and conditions in life, the members were united only by the love of science. The period was indeed most auspicious. The philosophy of the schools had fallen into discredit; and mankind were beginning to perceive, after ages of error, that the only safe road to the study of nature is by experiment and observation. At such a crisis, it was of the highest moment to fix and direct the public mind. The method of induction, however, demanding multiplied and expensive researches, the solitary application of the individual was unavailing; and it was essentially requisite to combine the labours of numerous bodies of men. The valuable discoveries which emanated from those societies engaged attention, and won general respect. Their memoirs became the repositories of physical *data*, and exhibited the successive steps in the progress of invention. The speedy exchange of ideas kindled emulation; and, by the

{ This sheet went to Press without my having read it, & it consequently full of errors. E. B. G.
Dr. H. 3½ pages of this article.

liberal discernment of the members, rising genius was fostered and brought forward to early notice.

Such was, at their origin, the beneficial influence of those incorporate bodies:—but the state of knowlege is now greatly altered; and the same reasons no longer exist, to recommend the institution of learned associations. A certain degree of information is very widely diffused, the philosophy of induction is fully established, and the literary journals afford easy and expeditious means of circulating discoveries. The world of science is a vast republic, connected among all its parts by sympathetic ties. Partial incorporations disturb the harmony of the whole, and impede the free circulation of benefits. If such associations also degenerate from the object of their institution; if they become actuated by a narrow exclusive spirit; and if, instead of anticipating the public judgment, they offer incense only to established reputation,—then their influence must be detrimental to the advancement of genuine science.

Other learned bodies, especially on the Continent, were founded on different principles. Deriving their support from the bounty of government, their members were limited in number; a circumstance which rendered the situation more an object of ambition; and as, previously to election, some public testimonies of the abilities of the candidate were required or expected, the honours of admission could never be flagrantly prostituted. The competition of talents excited a beneficial emulation; and, though the pecuniary emoluments were but slender, these establishments presented a most desirable retreat for men of genius, afforded them the means of pursuing their favourite studies, and held forth every encouragement and assistance to the promotion of knowlege.

It was with great concern, therefore, that we saw the academies in France suppressed during the phrenzy of *sansculottism*:—but, fortunately for the interests of humanity and science, that paroxysm was not of long duration. On the return of moderation, the academies were revived with new lustre, and were modelled after a plan more extensive, and better suited to the spirit of the age*. They are now comprehended under the title of NATIONAL INSTITUTE; which consists of one hundred and forty-four members resident at Paris, and a like number of associates dispersed in the departments. A certain proportion of learned foreigners are admitted as honorary members; of whom the number is restricted at present to twenty-four. The Institute is distributed into three classes:—

* See an account of the last volume, and dissolution, of the *Royal Academy of Sciences, &c.* at Paris, M. Rev. vol. xxviii. N. S. p. 529.

Mathematics

Mathematics and Natural Philosophy—Morality and Politics—Literature and the Fine Arts. Each of these classes is subdivided into several sections, having six members and six associates attached to each. The *First Class* contains *ten* sections, viz. *Mathematics—Mechanical Arts—Astronomy—Experimental Philosophy—Chemistry—Natural History—Botany—Anatomy and Animal History—Medicine and Surgery—Animal Oeconomy, and the Veterinary Science.* The *Second Class* contains *six* sections, viz. *Analysis of Sensations and Ideas—Morals—Legislature—Political Oeconomy—History and Geography.* The *Third Class* contains *eight* sections, viz. *Universal Grammar—Antient Languages—Poetry—Antiquities—Painting—Sculpture—Architecture—and Music.* The classes have each an apartment assigned to them in the Louvre. They are to hold four public meetings annually; and at the close of each year, they are to make a circumstantial report to the Legislative Body respecting the progress of the arts and sciences.

These few particulars may be acceptable to such of our readers as are desirous of being acquainted with the constitution of the National Institute. We have now before us its first year's transactions, in three distinct volumes corresponding to the several classes. Our attention will be first directed to the volume containing the

MATHEMATICAL *and* PHYSICAL PAPERS.

This volume commences with proposing two prizes—1st, for a pocket time-keeper, to point out the decimal division of the day into hours, minutes, and seconds; and, 2dly, for the comparison of the nature, form, and uses, of the liver, in the different tribes of animals. The inventions approved by the class are a metallic thermometer by *Regnier*—crayons by *Conté*, being excellent substitutes for the English black-lead pencils—and anatomical preparations in wax by *Laumonier*.—Next follows a list of printed works which have been presented to the class.—The account of deceased members is no longer entitled *Eloge*, but denominated by the more modest appellation of *Notice on the Life and Works*. The first of these which occurs here is that of *Vandermonde*, by M. *Lacepède*.

Vandermonde was born at Paris in 1735. His youth was devoted to study. About the age of thirty, he chanced to meet with the celebrated mathematician Fontaine, who conceived an affection for him, instructed him in his profound but obscure inventions, and encouraged him henceforth to devote himself strenuously to calculation and abstract science. He was admitted into the Academy of Sciences in 1771. Shortly afterward, he published a memoir on the resolution of equations,

and this was followed by a work on the *problems of situation*, a particular sort of combinations. He afterward treated of a new species of irrational quantities, and on the elimination of unknown quantities in algebraical equations. He was likewise fond of music; and in the years 1778 and 1780, he explained to the Academy the principles of a new system of harmony. In 1795 he was seized with a disorder in his breast which almost extinguished his voice, and gave other alarming symptoms. He continued, however, to perform his functions till he was carried off by a sudden and fatal attack on the 11 Nivose, fourth year (31 December, 1795).

The next article is a *Notice of the Life and Works of Alexander-Gui Pingré*, by M. *Prony*.—*Pingré* was born at Paris the 4th September 1711. At an early age, he was sent by his parents to be educated at Senlis, in a college established by the canons regular. He gave such marks of proficiency, and conceived such an attachment to his masters, that at sixteen he was received into the congregation; and, applying with unwearied assiduity to the study of divinity, he was appointed professor in that class at the age of twenty-four. Fourteen years were spent in that employment, till the theologian was involved in the disputes and troubles occasioned by the famous bull issued from the papal court in the middle of the century. Deprived of his chair and reduced to indigence, *Pingré* found a protector in *Le Cat*, the celebrated surgeon; a philosopher who was actuated by humanity and the love of science. He had founded an academy at Rouen; and thither he invited the ejected ecclesiastic to teach astronomy. From that date, *Pingré*'s studies took a new direction. In consequence of his observation of the transit of Mercury over the disk of the Sun on the 6th May 1753, he was admitted a correspondent of the Academy of Sciences. His reputation now growing every day, he was at last recalled by his congregation to Paris, and settled at the abbey of St. Genevieve, where he shortly afterward erected an observatory. In every thing that required patience and labour, *Pingré* was fitted to excel. Under the direction of *Lemonnier*, he computed the nautical almanacs for several years; and he re-calculated the eclipses given in the celebrated work *L'Art de vérifier les dates*, and extended the list from the rise of the republic of Athens to the 208th year of the French republic;—in other words, to the year 2000. *Pingré* was admitted into the academy in 1756. He was sent to the Isle Rodrigue, and to Cape Français, to observe the memorable transits of Venus in 1761 and 1769. He also made three voyages between the years 1767 and 1777, for the purpose of trying the merits of chronometers in finding the longitude at sea. In 1783, he published his most con-

siderable work, entitled *Cometographia*, containing every thing worth notice that can be collected relative to comets, in antient or modern times. This was to have been followed by the *History of Astronomy during the Seventeenth Century*, which was left in manuscript by the author, but is now printing at the expence of government. His last work was a translation, with learned notes, of the *Phænomena* of Aratus.—*Pingré* was a man of simple manners,—of mild and benevolent disposition,—and full of sentiments of liberal, tolerant, and refined piety. He was skilled in various languages, possessed extensive erudition, and passionately admired the classical authors. He also loved music, and in the latter period of his life was remarkably fond of botany. At the age of fourscore and four years, this venerable man, this patriarch of astronomy, disregarding the rigour of the season, punctually attended the meetings of the Institute. He suffered an illness of five days only, and retained to the last his calmness and presence of mind. He expired on the 11 Floréal, fourth year (30 April 1796).

In considering the *Memoirs* contained in this volume, it will be more perspicuous to depart from the order of their occurrence, and to adopt such arrangement as may correspond with the nature of the subjects on which they treat.

Of the Motions of the Cœlestial Bodies on their Centres of Gravity. By M. La Place.—It would be utterly impossible to give any distinct idea of a paper so condensed and abstruse as this, which displays all the resources of ingenuity, and all the nice refinements of the most profound analysis. It occupies 76 pages, and a subsequent part is reserved for the next volume. It exhibits a complete theory of the 20 rotatory motions, and of their periodical and secular variations. A remarkable equation of *condition* occurs, which is only a developement of the equation with *partial differences*, on which the illustrious author had before grounded his theory of the figure of the planets. For the investigation of the motions of a body above its centre of gravity, M. La Place employs the differential equations given by *Euler* in the third volume of his Mechanics. To integrate these, however, requires a discussion of extreme delicacy. The result of this investigation is, that, of the periodical changes in the axis of the Earth in respect to the plane of the ecliptic, the only sensible one is what depends on the longitude of the lunar nodes, and is termed *nutation*. There is, besides, a small inequality of about a second at its *maximum*, the argument of which is double the longitude of the Sun. Some astronomers have introduced a new equation dependant on the longitude of the lunar apogee, but which

M. La Place is led by this analysis to reject. The secular variations of the terrestrial orbit, likewise, produce such as are corresponding, but more extended, in the position of the Earth's axis in regard to a fixed plane. The principal effect of this nutation is to contract the limits of the evagations of the obliquity of the ecliptic, and the length of the tropical year. It occasions also a small variation in the length of the day, but by far too minute to have any sensible effect on astronomical calculations.—Combining the formulas of the motion of the Earth's axis with the theory of the figure of that planet already given in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for 1782, it appears that the Earth is not homogeneous, and that its oblateness does not exceed the $\frac{1}{304}$ part of its diameter. The proportion $\frac{1}{320}$, which results from the measures of the pendulum, is perfectly consistent with the phænomena of precession and nutation.

New Determination of the Orbit of Mercury. By Jérôme Lalande.—This delicate problem, rendered more arduous in the northern climates especially by the proximity of Mercury to the Sun, had for the space of forty years exercised the sagacity of the French Ptolemy:—but the rebellious planet still mocked his watchings, his researches, and his unwearied labours. At last, Fortune seems to have crowned him with success, and he exclaims with Virgil—

"*Respexit tamen, et longo post tempore venit.*"

The result is, that the equation of the orbit of Mercury is 23° 40′ 45″, and that the annual motion of the aphelion is 56″08. The secular motion is 2ˢ 14° 4′ 10″, and that of the aphelion 1.° 23′ 18″.

On the Place of the Node of Saturn's Ring in 1790. By Honoré Flaugergues, *Associated Member.*—The longitude of the nodes of Saturn's Ring has not been satisfactorily ascertained by preceding astronomers. In the year 1789 and the beginning of 1790, M. *Flaugergues* had an opportunity of watching the appearances and disappearances of the ring at its descending node. The observations of these phases were made in his observatory at Viviers, in the Vivarrais, by means of a Gregorian reflector of 15 inches, with a magnifying power of 40. From a simple application of spherics, it follows that the position of the descending node of Saturn's Ring, in 1790, was xiˢ 20° 52′ 59″, differing only by 27′ in excess from the determination of M. *Lalande*, obtained by similar observations at the same period. Comparing the deduction with that of *Maraldi* in 1714 and 1715, it follows that the node of the ring has a retrograde motion on the ecliptic, amounting to about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in the space of 175 years. This motion, altogether analogous

analogous to the precession of the equinoxes, is probably caused by the attractions of Saturn's satellites, and particularly the fifth.

Observations made at Viviers in the Department of the Ardéche. By the same.—These consist of occultations of stars by the moon, of eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, of the solar spots, and of a double halo about the Sun.

[*To be continued.*]

In order to give variety to this article, suited to the difference of taste among our readers, we here suspend, for the present, our attention to this volume, and take up that which relates to

LITERATURE *and the* FINE ARTS.

This volume opens with notices of prizes for the year 6. The first subject is, *to examine the changes which the French language has undergone since Malherbe and Balzac, to the present time.* The second is, *to examine what has been, and may yet be the influence of painting on the manners and government of a free people.* The prize for each to be a gold medal, of the weight of five hectogrammes.

The first memoir relates to *several articles of the New Encyclopèdie concerning the* [grammatical] *ellipsis, and the substitutes which are employed to express elliptic phrases; on complements and governing words; on the supine and participle; on qui, que, quoi, lequel; on qui est-ce, on qu'est-ce.* By DEWAILLY.—This paper is a kind of hypercriticism on opinions respecting some peculiarities of the French language, which have been advanced in the New Encyclopèdie. It had been asserted that the particles *de* and *des* are extractive propositions; that, when we say, *des Savans soutiennent, des hommes m'ont dit, des* is not in the nominative; and, that when we say, *j'ai vu des hommes, j'ai vu des femmes, des* is not in the accusative case. The author before us proves the contrary, we think, with considerable ingenuity. The remarks are extended to great length, and to a minuteness which would not interest the English reader. The principal object, indeed, seems to be, to controvert the opinions of the Encyclopedist, and to repel his objections against M. DEWAILLY's publications.

Observations on the Pronoun Soi, by M. LEMONNIER.—This writer wishes to reverse the decree of the French Academy, by which *soi* was declared to be always impersonal; and he proves, by striking illustrations, as well as by examples drawn from some of the best French writers, that we may say, *Pierre n'aime que soi,* instead of the Academic phrase, *Pierre n'aime que lui.*

First Memoir on the Necessity of instructing the Deaf and Dumb, and on the primary Means of Communicating with them. By SICARD.—This benevolent attempt to restore a degraded class of human beings, to a tolerable place in society, is enforced with merit, eloquence, and effect. In this country, the arguments in its favour are not new, though its execution has never become a national object.

The mode of instruction is developed at full length. The principle consists in placing before the pupil an object, a key, a knife, a pencil, &c. and shewing him the application of it. The motions made in applying it soon become to him the sign of the object when it is not present. The forms of objects are afterward drawn on paper, and the pupil is taught their intent, by the teacher pointing first to the object and then to the drawing. The object is afterward removed, and he is instructed to demand it by touching the drawing.—This mode of instruction reminds us of Swift's proposal for conversing by *things*, instead of words.—The pupil is then progressively led, by the formation of general characters, corresponding to the particular figures, to a knowlege of the alphabet.

The acquaintance with numbers is commenced by repeating the name or sign of an object, as often as there are objects of the same kind before the pupil: *Chair*, for instance, is written as many times as there are chairs in the room.

Above all things, patience is recommended to the instructor, and he is enjoined that very necessary lesson, which would do great service in every kind of study, to *begin at the beginning*; and to take nothing for granted, as already known, but to consider his pupil as an unorganized machine to which he is to give motion and direction.

Examination of Harris's Hermes, as translated by Thurot. By the same.—On various occasions, we have had reason for observing that the French public are little acquainted with the present state of English literature: but we have before us, in this paper, a proof of deficiency in this respect, which is almost incredible. The French translator, and the French reporter on Harris's Hermes, have given a history of grammarians in which there is not a word said of the discoveries of Mr. Horne Tooke; nor is his work once mentioned. This is more astonishing, because the political seasoning of his book, which has proved too fiery for the stomachs of some readers at home, would have been keenly relished by a member of the National Institute. As this article, therefore, turns on opinions, most of which are now completely exploded, any farther observations would be useless on our part.

Memoir on the Grammatical Proposition. By URBAN DOMERGUE.—This paper also is defective, because the author is unacquainted

unacquainted with the production of our countryman. He divides the proposition into three parts, the *judicand*, the *judicator*, and the *judicat*. Thus, in the proposition, *the rose is brilliant*, *the rose* is the thing to be judged, the *judicand*; the verb *is* presents the means of judging and is the *judicator*; and the adjective *brilliant* is the *judicat*; *res judicata*.

We own that we do not see much advantage from this species of analysis, nor that it leads us nearer to the spring-head of grammar. The idea is pursued with much diffuseness, and great variety of illustrations.

Report on the Fragment of an ancient Monument sent to the National Institute by M. Achard, Keeper of the Museum of Marseilles.—This fragment contained the following inscription;

ΘΕΑ ΔΙΚΤΥΑ
ΔΗΜΟC ΜΑΣΣ

which is translated by the reporters, *the People of Marseilles to the Goddess Dictya*. The title Dictya is supposed to be an abbreviation of Dictynna, a Cretan title for Diana; and it is conjectured that the worship of this goddess was introduced at Marseilles by the Phocians.

Observations on Magic, by M. Le Blond.—This writer seems to have been forcibly impressed by the hesitation of *La Bruyere*, on the subject of magic. It certainly was not a decided question in the age of *La Bruyere*, whether the pretences of magicians were well or ill-founded. Superstitions, which hold from the first principles of our nature, can never be fairly said to be displaced, even when they become unfashionable:—but we did not at first perceive to what purpose the author had retailed the old materials, scattered through so many well-known books, merely to shew the difference between natural magic and sorcery; a distinction which is admitted by every demonologist. After having quoted several passages, however, from Cicero, and Clemens Alexandrinus, M. Le Blond presents us very abruptly with an application of his text to the thaumaturgists and evokers of Spirits, who have lately made so much noise on the Continent.

An Epistle against Celibacy. By M. Ducis.—This poem is written on the model of Boileau, and contains some vigorous lines, notwithstanding the triteness of the subject. We have been particularly struck with the following:

'*Des vieux garçons mourans, des vieux célibataires,*
Les fripons, de tout temps, sont nés les legataires.'

The description of a super-annuated bachelor is painted with correctness and precision:

'*Aigri par l'impuissance, usé par la mollesse,*
Mort avant le trépas, vieux avant la vieillesse,

Dans

Dans ton ame indigente appeler le plaisir,
De la nature avare implorer un desir'—

The concluding phrase is remarkably happy.—

'Another line seems almost copied from our own Gray's

" Moody madness, laughing wild
Amid severest woe:"

' Du Désespoir qui rit l'effroyable alégresse.'

If this piece had been shorter, and more compressed, the author's poetical talents would have appeared to greater advantage.

Of an Ode to Enthusiasm, by M. LE BRUN, we cannot speak in such favourable terms. We have not remarked any disgusting fault, indeed, but neither have we discovered any felicity of expression, or strength of composition.

First Canto of a Poem, entitled the Vigil of Parnassus; by the same.—This canto comprehends the story of Orpheus and Eurydice, supposed to be related by the Muse Erato. This fiction, we presume, was intended to excuse the boldness of entering into competition with the author of the Georgics: but we fear that M. LE BRUN has not paid his court very adroitly at Parnassus; if this be a specimen of the powers of the Muse Erato, she certainly does not write poetry nearly so well as Virgil.

The Process of the Senate of Capua, an Anecdote taken from Livy *, by M. ANDRIEUX, is told with liveliness: but the moral of the story, which implies that the Parisians should be contented with their government as it stood three years ago, is now a little obsolete.

The Hospital for Fools, a Persian Tale, (in Verse,) in Continuation of the Thousand and One Nights. By the same.— A well-conceived and well-told story. An Emir of Bagdad, on visiting a madhouse, has many representations made to him by persons confined in it, that they are detained there by the machinations of their enemies. To decide on their complaints, he appoints Safad, the physician, to examine them in his palace. A sudden tempest increases the fury of the lunatics to such a degree, that it is deemed unsafe to trust them out of confinement; and the Emir, on receiving this intelligence, as he is going to hold his levee, feeling himself exhausted by other employments, determines to send Safad to give audience in his palace. By some accident, Safad is not informed of this change of measures, and repairs to the palace in expectation of meeting only with lunatics. The courtiers present their petitions in turn, and are entered by the physician

* Decad. 3. lib. 23.

on

on the list of incurables.—There are evidently some strokes at the times and circumstances, as they were when this composition was read: among others

'*Un chanteur présentoit ses projets de finance;*
Un grave magistrat ses petits airs de danse.'—

On repairing to drink sherbet with the Emir, Safad is astonished to see several of his supposed madmen admitted to the same honour. He is then undeceived, and the matter ends in a laugh. The moral is a little stronger, however, than the Stoical paradox. M. ANDRIEUX infers that all men are mad:

——'*Que chacun s'interroge,*
Chacun reconnoîtra qu'il a droit á sa loge;
Un peu plus, un peu moins, nous extravaguons tous:
Qui se croit le plus sage est le plus grand des fous.'

The author, indeed, might think himself justified in this conclusion, by limiting the application to the state of France at that period.—

The Miller of Sans Souci, an Anecdote, by the same. Frederic the Second is here introduced, with three notable qualifications, as

'*Grand Roi, bon Philosophe, et fort mauvais Chretien.*'

It would have been happy for Europe, however, if the greatness of the king had been tempered with a little Christian philosophy. The anecdote is, that Frederic wished to purchase a mill, which interfered with his projected improvements at Sans Souci; that the proprietor refused to part with it, so obstinately, as to induce the monarch to intimate that he could take it by force;—"Yes, (replied the miller,) if we had not judges at Berlin." The force of the reply struck the king, and he left his neighbour unmolested. There is no trusting however, to this kind of forbearance, as M. ANDRIEUX remarks, since the prince who respects a mill may steal a province.

Two fables by M. MONVEL, senior, are not of the first class; yet the latter is rather above mediocrity.

Counsels of an old Man to young People. By LEMONNIER.—Though "spoken in parables," these counsels might have been omitted without any disadvantage to the present collection.

Memoir on the Study of the Antients. By M. BITAUBÉ. This paper has given rise to very serious reflections in our mind. If the study of the learned languages require such a defender in Paris, the axe of Robespierre has fallen heavier than could have been believed; and the present generation must be enemies to every thing respectable in literature. This we cannot suppose; and we therefore must make allowance for the well-meaning zeal of M. BITAUBÉ, when he speaks of the

revival of letters in France; and when he attributes such importance to the inconsiderate opinion of CONDORCET, that translations may supply the place of original writers.

In return for this great dread of the new doctrines in literature, M. BITAUBÉ has most faithfully attached himself to the old established common-places on his subject, and has dealt them out void of improvement. Yet, from one passage in this essay, one might be tempted to conclude that the French are a very learned people; for he says, 'Shakespear often astonishes and enchants us, *but we read Sophocles more frequently.*' It certainly is not so in this country. The pleasures attending an intimacy with the best Greek and Roman writers are so far beyond the view of the mere learner, that we doubt whether the representations of M. BITAUBÉ will much increase the number of scholars. He appears, however, to be himself well acquainted with the master-pieces which he recommends to attention.

Socrates at the School of a Theologist; or Reflections on the Dialogue of Plato entitled Eutyphron. By the same. This short paper contains a supposition that, in the dialogue with Eutyphron, Socrates is made to introduce a general defence of his philosophy.

Considerations on the three Tragic Poets of Greece. By PIERRE-CHARLES LÉVESQUE. We were almost converted to M. BITAUBÉ's opinion of the low state of French literature, by the beginning of this paper; which states at large many facts concerning the origin of Tragedy, which an author of this country would cursorily notice as generally known. As we proceeded, however, the prospect began to clear; and we finished with the conviction that M. LÉVESQUE is a writer of taste and learning, though unnecessarily diffuse in some parts of his essay. We cannot be expected to follow him through details so familiar to literary men, but we shall notice some points on which there may be a difference of opinion.

In his character of Eschylus, we think, the author has been misled by the exaggerated ridicule of Aristophanes, whose sarcasms cannot be regarded as a foundation for sober criticism. We expected that the judgment of Dionysius the Halicarnassian would have been cited: but he does not seem to be in M. LÉVESQUE's list of authors. The French critic says that Eschylus could not excite pity; that he could only terrify the spectator.—The Greek Censor, who certainly knew more of Eschylus, says that he knew the proper bounds of expressing the passions; οὐ πάθων οὐ παθῶν τὸ πρέπον εἰδώς.—As Eschylus was the first dramatist who aided the effect of his pieces by stage-machinery, we may allow something for the usual

usual exaggerations of the Greeks, in speaking of the terror and amazement which he excited.

Sophocles is this essayist's favourite: but it was unnecessary to be unjust to his predecessor, in order to exalt this charming poet. We have been particularly pleased with one part of M. LÉVESQUE's observations, and we shall translate the substance of them.

'The great object of the tragic theatre of the Greeks, which it is easy to recognize in the pieces of Sophocles, was to inspire men with fortitude against reverses of fortune, and with resignation to the decrees of fate. Sophocles and Euripides flourished during the time of the Peloponnesian war: they had witnessed the celebrated pestilence which wasted Attica; they had seen whole republics destroyed by fire and sword, the citizens carried off, loaded with irons, sold for slaves, or slain, drowned, or burned; and there was not a man in Greece who might not dread a similar fate. He who in affluence enjoyed the favours of fortune, and the charms of the arts, might in one day undergo the yoke of servitude. Greece had become a theatre of revolutions; every citizen might be made the victim of them; and tragedy inspired him with courage against the evils with which he was threatened. The terror excited by the exhibition of great vicissitudes, the pity extended to those who suffer by them, these are the sentiments which tragedy awakened, to soften them by habit; because, during unhappy times, these sentiments felt in all their force, are additional evils. Aristotle had therefore reason for saying that the Greek tragedy, by means of terror and pity, purged these feelings; that is, it deprived them of that excessive poignancy, by which they only aggravate the sufferings of humanity.'

The character of Euripides is well drawn, and displays much knowlege, not only of that author's works, but of the antient drama in general.

The paper is closed with some general remarks on the chorus of the Greek tragedy. The author supposes that, as the chorus was not only the original representation, but a religious rite also, it continued to be necessarily imposed on dramatic writers, however ill suited to their views.

We find a note of some extent, relating to the *Epic Cycle*, or Collection of Epic Poems, which supplied the Greek dramatists with most of their subjects.

A Memoir relative to Aristophanes, by the same, is designed to vindicate the memory of this great writer against the attacks of some of his critics, and especially against the aspersions of *Voltaire*; who probably, as M. LÉVESQUE suggests, had never read Aristophanes in the original.

Nothing can be more unfounded than *Voltaire's* assertion, that Aristophanes was no poet; his choruses contain some of the sweetest and most elevated passages of which Grecian

poetry

poetry can boast. The hymn to the Nightingale, in the comedy of the Birds, is alone sufficient to immortalize him, as a specimen of excellence in both kinds of composition.

M. LÉVESQUE has been very happy in pointing out the resemblance between the Greek comedian and Moliere. It is not necessary, in order to account for this similitude, to resort to *Moliere's* acquaintance with Aristophanes: they were men of similar genius; of easy wit; of exquisite humour; and correct in their delineation of ludicrous characters, placed in ridiculous circumstances. They were equally original, for they copied nature; and the analogy of their writings is equally flattering to each of their memories.

Memoir on the successive Improvements of Painting in Greece, by the same Author. This is a very learned and copious essay:—but as the materials from which it is drawn have been already worked by writers of this country, and as the remarks, however ingenious and well expressed, contain little novelty, we shall give no abridgement of the author's observations.

As a specimen of the ingenuity of M. LÉVESQUE, we shall extract the following note, illustrative of a passage in Pliny:

'*Pinxit* [Apelles] *et quæ pingi non possunt, tonitrua, fulgura, fulgatra.* We read after this passage, *Brontem, Astrapen, Ceraunobolion appellant.* These words seem useless, and Pintianus believed that they had been added by some Greek transcriber: *Hæc verba Græculi alicujus potius quam Plinii puto.* I have no doubt that they are the words of Pliny; I do not believe them to be superfluous; and I think that they instruct us in a custom of the antients, which we know to exist among the modern amateurs. It often happens that a name is given to a celebrated picture, taken from some accidental image introduced in it, or from some circumstance which concerns it. Thus, a Holy Family by Andrea del Sarta, is called the *Madonna del Sacco*, because St. Joseph is represented in it seated on a sack:—a picture by Guido, which represents St. Benedict in the desart, is called *La Turbantina;* because a woman dressed with a kind of turban appears in it:—a print representing the disciples at Emmaüs, engraved after Titian by Masson, is called the Print of the Table-Cloth, *(estampe de la Nappe,)* because a table-cloth is very skillfully managed in it:—the portrait of the Marshal d'Harcourt is known under the name of *Cadet a la Perle*, because he wears a pearl in his ear;—and a print by Rembrandt is called the Hundred Florin-Piece, from the price which has been given for a single proof. In the same manner, the antients called a painting of Protogenes *the Woman and Mules, (Hemionida)* though it was supposed to represent Nausicaa, because this princess was painted on a car drawn by mules. Thus three pictures of Apelles had received names relative to their most striking effect, and those are the names which Pliny mentions: One was called Βροντη, another Αστραπη, and the third Κεραυνοβολια. I believe that the latter was that which represented Alexander darting the thunder. Pliny, in mentioning

that

that Lucullus gave two talents for a copy of the Flower Girl of Pausias, expresses himself thus: *Hujus tabulæ exemplar, quod* Apographon *vocant, L. Lucullus duobus talentis emit.* This phrase has been misunderstood as a dictionary-phrase; it means that this picture was called *The Copy*, by way of excellence. The high price given for it by Lucullus, joined to its beauty, merited this appellation.'

Notice concerning a Passage in Simplicius, by SCHWEIGHÆUSER, jun. An omission of the copyist is here supplied by a tolerably fortunate conjecture: but the object is hardly important enough to justify its insertion in this volume.

New Researches respecting the Ships employed by the Antients, from the Origin of the Punic Wars to the Battle of Actium; and on the Use which might be made of them in our Marine. By DAVID LE ROY.—The object of the first memoir, on this much-contested inquiry, is to prove that the crow of Duillius might be used in the French privateers, instead of their bowsprits. We imagine that this proposal will not retrieve the glory of the French marine.

Memoirs on the public Works of the Romans, compared with those of the Moderns. By ANTONY MONGEZ.—The author accounts for the immense size of the Roman public buildings, from the great number of criminals condemned to work for life in the quarries, &c. From a comparison of the probable expence of supporting the condemned workmen, he supposes that the buildings of Nero and Diocletian cost less, by three-fourths, than those of modern times. We think that the deduction is rather hasty. He sketches, in a desultory manner, several other circumstances which tended to diminish the expenditure on those occasions; the employment of slaves, the accession of plunder, of contributions from the provinces, &c.—The principal part of the essay contains some curious remarks on particular processes used by the Romans in their cements.

Researches ~~relative to~~ the Colours of the Antients, and the Arts which relate to them. By M. AMEILHON.—This author, struck with the uncertainty of the meanings affixed to the Greek and Latin words denoting colours, attempts to ascertain them more accurately. For this purpose, he has collated those passages, in which authors have compared the colour, expressed by a Greek or Latin word, to the colour of some object which has been at all periods the same; to milk, or blood, for example.—Thus, the meaning of the word κυάνος is ascertained, by finding that it is compared to the colour of the sky, which is *blue*. The signification of *luteus* is proved, in the same manner, by its being compared to the colour of saffron, or the yolk of an egg: this process shews that it means *yellow*. The memoir is clogged, however, with a heavy dissertation on the art of dying among

among the antients, in which the author proceeds no farther than the process of *fulling*. At this rate, he may fill the next volume of the Institute, without coming to his point.—We do not mean to deny the learning displayed in these preliminary inquiries: but we think that they would have been more properly employed in a separate treatise. At present, they only disappoint us of the information which the author had promised.

Dissertation on the true Portrait of Alexander the Great. By M. Le Blond.—The object of this dissertation, which is written with much learning and ability, is to prove that the heads covered with the lion's skin, on some of Alexander's coins, which have passed among antiquaries for heads of the young Hercules, are really portraits of the Macedonian conqueror. The particular arguments, produced in favour of this opinion, could not be understood without the plates.

Observations on the Distribution and Classification of Books in a Library. By A. G. Camus.—The arrangement proposed by this author proceeds on the supposition that the student enters the library entirely ignorant. The basis of his project, therefore, is fallacious. Great libraries are, in fact, most useful to persons who are considerably advanced in knowlege; to whom, arrangement is a trifling object, and facility of access is every thing.

Memoir on the Completion of the Louvre, on the Enlargement of the National Museum of Painting and Sculpture, and on the Necessity of immediately forming a particular School of the Arts. By M. Peyre.—We cannot be expected to give a competent opinion on the local details of this paper. The ideas seem great and comprehensive; and, with the models of perfection, in all kinds, which the French nation now possess, we may expect it to produce very superior artists.

We have now gone through the whole of the volume relative to LITERATURE and THE FINE ARTS. In a subsequent article, we shall resume our attention to the volume on the MATHEMATICAL and PHYSICAL SCIENCES, and pay our respects to that which is devoted to MORALITY and POLITICS.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. II. *Traité de Mécanique Céleste, &c. i. e.* A Treatise on Celestial Mechanics. By P. S. La Place, Member of the National Institute of France, and of the Board of Longitude. 4to. 2 Vols. pp. 400 in each. Paris. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 2l. 2s.

In the Appendix to our 29th volume, we gave an account of M. La Place's work entitled "*Exposition du Système du Monde.*"

Monde," and we then announced a great and important publication by the same author, which was soon to appear. The first part of that performance is now submitted to our examination. Its plan, its object, and the motive which induced the author to so laborious and useful an undertaking, cannot be more clearly and forcibly stated than in the words of his introduction:

'Towards the close of the last century, Newton published the discovery of universal gravitation. Since that period, geometricians have succeeded in reducing to this great law of nature all the known phænomena of the system of the world, and thus have given to theories and astronomical tables an unexpected precision. I purpose to offer, in one point of view, these theories which are scattered through a great number of works; and which, in their totality, embracing all the results of universal gravitation, on the equilibrium, and on the motions of solid bodies and fluids which compose the solar system, and similar systems diffused through the immensity of space, constitute 'Celestial Mechanics.' Astronomy, considered in the most general view, is a great problem of mechanics, in which the elements of the heavenly motions are the arbitrary quantities; its solution depends at once on the exactness of observations, and on the perfection of analysis; and it is of high importance to exclude all empiricism, and scrupulously to borrow from observations those data which are indispensable. To fulfil, to the greatest extent of my powers, an object so interesting, is the intention of the present work. In consideration of the importance and difficulty of the attempt, I hope that geometricians and astronomers will receive it with indulgence; and that they may find its results sufficiently simple to employ them in their researches. It will be divided into two parts. In the first, I shall give the methods and formulas necessary to determine the motion of the centres of gravity of heavenly bodies, the figure of these bodies, the oscillations of the fluids which cover them, and their motions round their proper centres of gravity. In the second part, I shall apply the formulas found in the first to the planets, satellites, and comets. I shall conclude it by an examination of the different questions relative to the system of the world, and by an historical notice of the labours of geometricians on this subject. I shall adopt the decimal division of the right angle and the day, and shall refer the linear measures to the length of the metre, determined by the arc of the terrestrial meridian comprised between Dunkirk and Barcelona.'

The first book treats on *the general laws of Equilibrium and Motion*, and the first chapter on *the Equilibrium and composition of Forces acting on a material Point.* The demonstration of the composition of forces given by *Varignon*, *Newton*, &c. was long ago shewn to be deficient in evidence and *rigor geometricus*, by *Daniel Bernouilli* and *D'Alembert.* The former published, in the Petersburgh acts, a strict demonstration of the resolution of forces, in the particular case in which the forces are equal, and acting at right angles. He affirmed that, by the aid of this fundamental proposition, the resolution of forces might be demonstrated, whatever were the magnitude and

inclination of the forces. The proofs, however, are not strict and accurate, when the angle in which the forces are inclined to each other is incommensurable with a right angle.—M. *D'Alembert*, in his *Opuscules*, exhibited a stricter demonstration; and his fundamental proposition is the quiescence of a material point, acted-on by three equal forces inclined at 120 degrees. In a subsequent volume of the same work, however, he gave a more general demonstration by the aid of functions; and to this last demonstration of *D'Alembert*, the present one of M. L. Place is similar in principle and method. It necessarily consists of two parts; the first is to give the proper magnitude of the resulting force ($z^2 = x^2 + y^2$), independently of the angle of its inclination to one of the sides (x): the second is to determine the inclination to be that which the diagonal of a rectangular parallelogram makes with one of its sides.

As the position of a point depends on three rectangular co-ordinates, M. La Place supposes the place of a body, the origin of forces, &c. to be determined by three co-ordinates, and every force to be resolved into three partial forces parallel to the axes of these co-ordinates. The first equation which he deduces is that for the equilibrium of a material point, acted on by any number of forces; the form of the equation is $O = \Sigma . S \delta s$; which is the analytical translation of this proposition, that, when a point is *in equilibrio* solicited by any number of forces, the sum of the products of each force by the element of its direction is O. If the point be on a curved surface, the equation becomes (calling R the re-action of the surface, and r the perpendicular to the surfaces drawn through the point M,) $o = \Sigma . S \delta s + R . \delta r$.

Chapter II. *On the Motion of a material Point.*—The fundamental principles, on which the doctrine of motion rests, are contained in the laws of motion. The proof of the inertia of matter offered by M. La Place is similar to that of *D'Alembert*, grounded on the principle known by the name of the sufficient reason. After having stated what gives rise to the idea of velocity, and defined it to be the ratio of the space uniformly described to the time of describing it, M. La Place proceeds to examine a very important question in the doctrine of the motion of bodies moved in nature; namely, the proportionality of the force to the velocity. The judiciousness of his reasonings, and the perspicuity of his method, will justify us in giving an extract on this subject:

'Force being known to us only by the space which it causes to be described in a determinate time, it is natural to take this space as its measure: but this supposes that several forces, acting in the same direction, cause a space to be described equal to the sum of the spaces that

that each would cause to be described separately; or, which is the same thing, that the force is proportional to the velocity. This we cannot know *à priori*, because of our ignorance of the nature of the moving force: for information, then, on this subject, we are obliged to have recourse to experience; since every thing, which is not a necessary consequence of the small number of data that we have on the nature of things, can only be known to us as the result of observation.

'Call v the velocity of the Earth, common to all bodies on its surface; let f be the force with which one of these bodies M is animated, by virtue of this velocity; let us suppose $v=f.\varphi(f)$ designates the relation existing between the velocity and force; $\varphi(f)$ being a function of f, which it is necessary to determine by experience. Let a, b, c, be three partial forces, into which the force f is decomposed, parallel to three axes perpendicular to each other. Conceive, then, the moving body M solicited by a new force f', which is decomposed into three others, a', b', c', parallel to the same axes. The forces acting on the body in the direction of these axes will be $a+a'$, $b+b'$, $c+c'$; and calling F the only resulting force, we have

$$F=\sqrt{(a+a')^2+(b+b')^2+(c+c')^2}.$$

'Call U the velocity corresponding to F; $\frac{(a+a').U}{F}$ will be this velocity decomposed parallel to the axis a; so that the relative velocity of the body on the Earth, parallel to this axis, will be $\frac{(a+a').U}{F}-\frac{av}{f}$, or $(a+a').\varphi(F)-a.\varphi(f)$ The most considerable forces which can be impressed on bodies at the surface of the Earth, being very small in comparison of the forces which they receive by virtue of the Earth's motion, we may consider a', b', c', as quantities infinitely small relatively to f; we have, then,

$$F=f+\frac{aa'+bb'+cc'}{f} \text{ and } \varphi(F)=\varphi(f)+\frac{(aa'+bb'+cc')}{f}.\varphi'(f);$$

$\varphi'(f)$ being the differential of $\varphi(f)$ divided by df. The relative velocity of M, according to the axis of a, will thus become

$$a'.\varphi(f)+\frac{a}{f}\left\{aa'+bb'+cc'\right\}.\varphi'(f)$$

and similar will become the expressions for the relative velocities according to the axis of b and c. The position of the axis of a, of b, and of c, being arbitrary, we may take the direction of the impressed force for the axis of a, and then a', b' will be nothing; the preceding relative velocities will be changed into these,

$$a'\left\{\varphi(f)+\frac{a'}{f}.\varphi'(f)\right\}\;;\;\frac{ab}{f}.a'.\varphi'(f)\;;\;\frac{ac}{f}.a'.\varphi'(f)$$

'If $\varphi'(f)$ be not nothing, the body, by virtue of the impressed force a', will have a relative velocity perpendicular to the direction of this force; provided that b and c be not evanescent; that is to say, provided that the direction of this force does not coincide with that of the Earth's motion. Thus, conceiving a globe at rest on a very smooth horizontal plane, to be struck by the base of a right cylinder,

moving according to the direction of its axis supposed to be horizontal; the relative apparent motion of the globe would not be parallel to this axis, in all the positions of the axis relatively to the horizon. Here, then, is a simple method of ascertaining, by experience, whether $\varphi'(f)$ has a sensible value on the Earth: but the most exact experiments render imperceptible, in the apparent motion of the globe, any deviation from the direction of the impressed force; whence it follows that, on the Earth, $\varphi'(f)$ is nearly nothing. Its value, were it ever so little sensible, would be principally manifest in the duration of the oscillations of the pendulum; a duration which would be different according to the position of the plane of its motion, with respect to the direction of the Earth's motion. The most exact observations not discovering any like difference, we must conclude that $\varphi'(f)$ is insensible, and probably nothing on the Earth.

'If the equation $\varphi'(f)=o$ obtained, whatever were the force f, $\varphi(f)$ would be constant, and the velocity would be proportional to the force; again, it would be proportional thereto, if the function $\varphi(f)$ were composed of only one term; since otherwise $\varphi'(f)$ would never be nothing, f not being so. It would be necessary, then, if the velocity were not proportional to the force, to suppose that, in nature, the function of the velocity which expresses the force is composed of several terms; which is scarcely probable. It is moreover necessary to suppose, that the velocity of the Earth is exactly that which is conformable to the equation $\varphi'(f)=o$, which is against all probability. Besides, the velocity of the Earth varies in different seasons of the year; it is a thirtieth part greater in winter than in summer. This variation is still more considerable, if, as every thing seems to indicate, the solar system be moved in space; for, according as the progressive motion conspires with that of the Earth, or according as it is contrary, there ought thence to result, during the course of the year, great variations in the absolute motion of the earth; which ought to alter the equation in question, and the ratio of the impressed force to the absolute velocity which thence results; if this equation and this ratio were not independent of the Earth's motion:—but observation discovers no sensible alteration.'

Having thus established the two fundamental propositions, the inertia of matter, and the proportionality of force to velocity, (the only two propositions which mechanics borrow from experience,) the author considers the movement of a material point solicited by forces that appear to act like gravity in a continued manner. The equations for the motion of a point are obtained by employing the principle excogitated by *D'Alembert*, and applied in the *Dynamique* of that author: by this principle, the velocity which a body has at the beginning of a new instant of time is decomposed into two; one, the velocity which the body has in the new instant; and the other must necessarily be such that the body, by virtue of it, must remain in equilibrio.—The equation next deduced is that of the square of the velocity ($v^2=c+2\varphi$), c being a constant quantity, and

φ a function, the exact differential of which is $Pdx+Qdy+Rdz$, x, y, and z being three rectangular co-ordinates, and P, Q, R, three forces acting parallel to them.—M. La Place next demonstrates the singular property of the curve described by a body; which property consists in this, that the integral $\int vds$. (v= velocity, ds=element of the curve,) comprized between the two extreme points of the described curve, is less than in every other curve if the body be free, or on every other curve subjected to the same surface on which it must move if not entirely free.

From the equations established in the first chapter, is deduced this proposition: that the pressure against a surface is equal to the square of the velocity divided by the radius of curvature; and thence immediately this,—that the centrifugal force of a body revolving in a circle is equal to the square of the velocity divided by the radius.

The case of a body moving in a resisting medium, and acted on by a constant force, is next investigated. If, in the equations deduced, the resistance be put=o, three equations are obtained, which contain all the theory of projectiles. The motion of a body on a spherical surface is reduced to three differential equations of the first order; thence may be had the expression for the square of the velocity, and for the differential of the time, the integral of which can only be obtained in an infinite series. When the oscillations are very small, this integral is nearly=$\pi\sqrt{\frac{r}{g}}$, r=radius of circle, g=gravity, π=semidiameter of circle, radius=1. This expression is equivalent to this; that the oscillations in small circular arcs are isochronous: but, as the isochronism of the pendulums in circular arcs are only approximate, a question naturally presents itself, concerning the curve which a body must describe in a resisting medium, so as to arrive in the same time at the point at which its motion ceases, whatever be the arc described from the lowest point. M. La Place deduces the general equation to the tautochronous curve, which equation converts in that of the cycloid in the two cases of an evanescent resistance, and of a resistance varying as the velocity, agreeably to what Newton has demonstrated in his *Principia.* (Vol 2. prop. 26.)

Chapter III. *On the Equilibrium of a System of Bodies.*—The most simple case of equilibrium is that of two material points meeting each other with equal and directly contrary velocities; their impenetrability destroys their velocity, and reduces them to a state of repose. From a principle like this, M. *D'Alembert* proposed to deduce all the cases relative to the impact of bodies; the cases in which the bodies are to each as number to number are easily solved; and the demonstrations are ex-

tended to incommensurable bodies, by the introduction of a proposition built on the method *reductio ad absurdum*. The method of M. La Place is not essentially different from that of *D'Alembert*. His first proposition is to investigate the relation between the velocities u and u', pertaining to two systems of material points m and m', in the same right line, but moving in directly contrary directions: this relation is expressed by the equation $mu=m'u'$. This proposition is made to include all bodies; all bodies are therefore supposed to be commensurable, or (according to the author's expression) to consist of an assignable number of similar material points; similar material points being those which, meeting with equal and contrary velocities, produce a mutual equilibrium.

After the conditions of the equilibrium of two systems of bodies are stated, the equation of the equilibrium is deduced; whence results the famous principle of virtual velocities invented by M. Lagrange, and applied by him in his *Nouvelle Mecanique*. —The case next considered is that in which the points of a system are invariably united together; the conditions of their equilibrium are given; the centre of gravity is investigated, &c.

In the course of this chapter, is deduced the equation $\Sigma.mv^2=c+2\phi$; which is the analytical translation of the principle of the conservation of *forces vives*. As this principle does not subsist in the case of a sudden variation of the motions of the system, M. La Place gives a method of estimating the alteration which the *force vive* undergoes. The principle of the conservation of the motion of the centre of gravity, of areas, is demonstrated; each of which subsists in the sudden change of the system:—next, the system of co-ordinates, in which the sum of the areas described by the projection of the *radii vectores* is nothing, on two rectangular planes formed by the axes of these co-ordinates. This sum is a maximum on the third rectangular plane, and nothing on every other plane perpendicular to this.

At the conclusion of the chapter, it is shewn that $\Sigma.\int mvds$ is a minimum. In this equation, is involved the principle of the least action discovered by *Maupertuis*, and treated by that author on metaphysical considerations; although the principle is merely a mathematical result of the primordial laws of the equilibrium and motion of matter.

In Chap. IV. are given *the general Equations of the Equilibrium of Fluids.*

Chap. V. *On the general Principles of the Motion of a System of Bodies.*—The laws of the motion of a point are reduced to those of equilibrium, by decomposing its instantaneous motions into two others; one of which subsists, and the other is destroyed by the forces soliciting this point. The equilibrium between

between these forces and the motion lost by the body gives the differential equation of its motion.—A like method may be used to determine the motion of a system of bodies m, m', m'', &c. If mP, $m\mathcal{Q}$, mR, be the forces soliciting m, parallel to the axis of its rectangular co-ordinates, x, y, z, and $m'P'$, $m'\mathcal{Q}'$, $m'R'$, &c. forces soliciting m', &c.—and δx, δy, δz, the variations of the directions of the forces, the equations will be of this form:

$$o = m.\delta x\left\{\frac{ddx}{dt^2} - P\right\} + m.\delta y\left\{\frac{ddy}{dt^2} - \mathcal{Q}\right\} + \&c.$$

Chap. VI. *On the Laws of Motion of a System of Bodies, in all relations mathematically possible between the Force and Velocity.*

M. La Place observes that there are an infinite number of ways of expressing the force by the velocity, which imply no contradiction. The most simple of all is that of the force proportional to the velocity, and observation proves it to be the law of nature. Agreeably to this law, the differential equations of the motion of a system of bodies have been determined: but the analysis employed relates to all laws mathematically possible between the force and velocity. The author designates this relation between the velocity and force, by the equation $F = \varphi(v)$, $\varphi(v)$ representing any function of the velocity.

This hypothesis renders the solution of the problems extremely difficult: but from the equations may be deduced principles analogous to those of the conservation of the *forces vives*, of areas, of the centre of gravity, &c. The conservation of the *forces vives* has place in all laws mathematically possible between the force and velocity; understanding, by the *force vive* of a body, the product of its mass by the double of the integral of its velocity, multiplied by the differential of the function of the velocity which expresses the force; —and the principle of the least action has place, when it means that the sum of the integrals of the finite forces of the bodies of a system, respectively multiplied by the elements of their direction, is a minimum.

Chapter VII. *On the Motions of a solid Body, of any figure whatever.*—Here we find the equations for the motions of the translation and rotation of a body; the principal axes of a body; its instantaneous axis of rotation; the oscillations of a body vibrating about one of its principal axes; the state of stability for a system of bodies; or such a state that the system deranged from it, by an infinitely small quantity, only varies from it by an infinitely small quantity, making continual oscillations about this state.

Chapter VIII. *On the Motions of Fluids.*—As the laws of the motion of a system of bodies were deduced from those of its equilibrium, so the laws of the motions of fluids are made to depend from those of their equilibrium. M. La Place deduces the equations of their motions, transforms them, and shews that they are integrable when, the density being any function of the pressure, the sum of the velocities parallel to three rectangular axes, multiplied each by the element of its direction, is an exact variation. He then applies his principles to the motion of a fluid homogenous mass, having an uniform motion of rotation round one of the axes of its co-ordinates; to the determination of the very small oscillations of a fluid homogeneous mass, covering a spheroid that has a motion of rotation; to the motion of the Sea, supposing it deranged from a state of equilibrium by the action of very small forces; to the oscillation of the Earth's atmosphere in a state of motion, regarding only the regular causes that agitate it; and to the variations which these motions produce in the heights of the barometer.

Book II. *On the Law of universal Gravitation, and on the Motion of the Centres of Gravity of Heavenly Bodies.*

In his *Exposition du Systême du Monde*, M. La Place stated that, in order to arrive at the comprehensive view which is now formed of the system of the World, it was necessary to observe, during a great number of ages, the phænomena of the heavens; to recognize the real motions of the Earth; to ascend to the laws of the planetary motions, and from these laws to the principle of universal gravitation; and finally to descend from these laws to the complete explication of all the heavenly phænomena, even in their minutest details. To descend from the law of gravitation to the calculation of the phænomena, is the business of physical astronomy; of which Newton is the father. Its appearance caused a most memorable epoch in the history of science.

The first book of the *Principia*, it is known, is conversant in the solution of geometrical and mechanical problems; and in the third book, application is made of these problems to the system of the world. Newton, in his 2d section, proves that, if equal areas in equal times be described by a body round a fixed point, the body is urged by a force tending towards that point: but *Kepler*, by observation, found that the planets described equal areas round the Sun: the planets, therefore, were urged by forces tending towards the Sun. Again, Newton proved (3d section) that a body, moving in an ellipse round a force in the focus, was urged by a force of which the law of variation was the inverse square of the distance: but *Kepler* had observed

that the planets moved in ellipses having the Sun in one of the *foci*: the law, therefore, of the force which urged the planets was the inverse square of the distance *.

The first two problems of this chapter, solved by M. La Place, are the same as the two of Newton above mentioned: but the solution is by a different method; less simple, perhaps, in this particular case, yet to be preferred on account of its connexion with the methods previously used by the author in the preceding parts of his volume. In a systematic work, no demonstrations ought to be admitted but such as are dependent from previously established principles, and connected with preceding methods; though independent propositions often present themselves, allure with a specious facility, and tempt the author to depart from the plain and direct road, in the hope of finding a bye-path to truth. In general, the facility and conciseness of such demonstrations, if thoroughly examined, are illusive: but, were such qualities real, they must be sternly sacrificed, for the sake of unity and systematic regularity.

According to the method of M. La Place, the position of a body moving in a curve of simple curvature is determined by two rectangular co-ordinates. Let x and y be two co-ordinates, which have their origin at the centre of force; let P and Q be two forces acting on a body, and parallel to the axis of x and y; then the differential equations of the body's motion are

$$o=\frac{ddx}{dt^2}+P$$

$$o=\frac{ddy}{dt^2}+Q$$

whence this equation:

$$o=\frac{d.(xdy-ydx)}{dt^2}+x.\ Q-y.\ P:$$

but, according to the first law of *Kepler*,

$xdy-ydx=cdt$ (c a constant quantity)

$\therefore x.\ Q-y.\ P=o$

or, $P, Q :: x : y$;

therefore, the resulting force of P and Q passes through the origin of the co-ordinates, or through the Sun.

To discover the law of the resulting force, let the resulting force $=\varphi$, let $v=$angle formed by x, and a radius (r) drawn from the Sun to the planet; then $P=\varphi.\cos.v$, $Q=\varphi.\sin.v$:

* The law of gravitation cannot, however, be admitted as demonstrated on such simple reasoning as this; not but that the reasoning is exact, granting the premises.

from

from which equations, and those preceding, an expression for φ may be deduced in terms of r, v, and other constant quantities: —but, from the second law of *Kepler*, the orbits are ellipses; from the equation to an ellipse, find the value of r, substitute it in the equation for φ, and the value of φ will appear to be $\frac{b}{r^2}$, b being a constant co-efficient.

M. La Palce next shews the method of ascertaining the law of gravitation, according to which the satellites of Jupiter, Saturn, and Uranus are attracted towards their primaries; also the method of ascertaining the law of the Moon's tendency to the earth. These methods do not differ in their principle from those given by Newton in his *Principia*: but they possess the advantage of being fully developed, and of being detailed with perspicuity and exactness. The arguments for the universality of gravitation, and its law, are stated by the author with great clearness, precision, and force.

'The Sun, and the planets which have satellites, are consequently endowed with an attractive force; which, decreasing to infinity, reciprocally proportional to the squares of distances, embraces all bodies within the sphere of its activity. Analogy leads us to suppose that a like force resides universally in all the planets and comets: but we may be directly assured of this truth thus. It is a constant law of nature, that a body cannot act on another without experiencing an equal and contrary re-action; thus, the planets and comets being attracted towards the Sun, they ought, according to the same law, to attract this star. For the same reason, satellites attract their planets; this attracting property is common then to planets, to comets, and to satellites, and consequently the mutual gravitation of heavenly bodies may be regarded as a general property of the universe.

'We have just seen that gravitation follows the ratio of the inverse square of distances; in truth, this ratio is given by the laws of the elliptic motion, to which the heavenly motions are not rigorously subjected: but we must consider that the most simple laws are always to be preferred, until observation compels us to abandon them. It is natural to suppose, at first, that the law of gravitation is according to a reciprocal power of the distance; and we find, by calculation, that the slightest difference between this power and the square would become extremely sensible in the position of the perihelia of planetary orbits, where observation scarcely discovers certain motions almost insensible, of which we shall develope the cause. In general, we shall see, in the course of this work, that the law of gravitation, according to the inverse square of the distances, represents with extreme precision all the inequalities observable in the heavenly motions; this agreement, joined to the simplicity of this law, authorizes us in the supposition that it is rigorously the law of nature.

'Gravitation

'Gravitation is proportional to the masses; for it results from No. 3, that the planets and comets, being supposed at the same distance from the Sun, and abandoned to their tendency towards this star, would fall through an equal height in equal times; so that their gravity would be proportional to their masses. The nearly circular motions of satellites round their planets proved that they gravitate, as these planets, towards the Sun, in the ratio of their masses; the slightest difference in this respect would be sensible in the motion of the satellites; and observation discovers no inequality dependent on this cause. We perceive, then, that comets, planets, and their satellites, placed at the same distance from the Sun, would gravitate towards this star in proportion to their masses; whence it follows, by virtue of the equality of action and re-action, that they would attract the Sun in the same proportion; and that thus their action on this star is proportional to their masses, divided by the square of their distances from his centre.

'The same law is observed on the Earth. We are assured by the most precise experiments, made by means of the pendulum, that, without the resistance of the air, all bodies would be precipitated towards its centre with an equal velocity; terrestrial bodies, then, gravitate on the Earth, in the ratio of their masses; as planets gravitate towards the Sun, and satellites towards their planets. This conformity and consistency of nature on the Earth, and in the immensity of the heavens, demonstrate to us, in the most striking manner, that the gravity observed here below is only a particular case of the general law which pervades the universe.

'The attractive property of celestial bodies is not peculiar to them only while they exist in masses; it belongs to each of their individual particles. If the Sun acted only on the centre of the Earth without particularly attracting each of its parts, there would result, in the ocean, oscillations incomparably greater than and very different from the oscillations now observed there. The gravitation of the Earth towards the Sun is, then, the result of the gravitation of all its particles; which, by consequence, attract the Sun in the ratio of their respective masses.—Moreover, each body on the earth gravitates towards its centre, proportionally to its mass;—it re-acts, then, on the Earth, and attracts it according to the same proportion. If this were not the case, and if any part whatever of the Earth, however small we suppose it, did not attract another part, as itself was attracted; the centre of gravity of the Earth would move in space, by virtue of its gravity; which is impossible.

'The heavenly phænomena, compared with the laws of motion, conduct us then to this grand principle of nature; that all the particles of matter mutually attract in the ratio of their masses, and the inverse ratio of the square of their distances. Already, in this universal gravitation, we have a glimpse of the cause of the perturbations which the heavenly bodies experience; since the planets and comets, being subjected to their reciprocal action, must necessarily deviate a little from the laws of elliptic motion, which they would follow exactly if they obeyed only the action of the Sun. The satellites disturbed in their motions round their planets, by their mutual attraction and by that of the Sun, ought in like manner to deviate from these

these laws. We perceive, moreover, that the particles of each celestial body, re-united by their attraction, ought to form a mass nearly spherical; and that the result of their action, at the surface of bodies, ought there to produce all the phenomena of gravitation. In like manner, we perceive that the motion of rotation of heavenly bodies must necessarily alter in a small degree their spherical figure, and flatten at the poles; and that then the result of their mutual actions, not passing exactly through their centres of gravity, would produce, in their axis of rotation, motions similar to those discovered by observation.—Finally, we discern that the particles of the ocean, unequally attracted by the Sun and Moon, ought to have an oscillatory motion similar to the flux and re-flux of the sea.—The developement of these various effects of universal gravitation requires the most profound analysis. To embrace them in all their generality, we proceed to give the differential equations of the motion of a system of bodies, under the influence of their mutual attraction; and to investigate the rigorous integrals which can thence be obtained. We shall in course avail ourselves of the advantages in point of facility, which the ratios of the masses and distances of heavenly bodies offer to us; in order to deduce the integrals more and more nearly, and so to determine the celestial phenomena, with all the exactness which observations require.

Chapter II. *On the differential Equations of the Motion of a System of Bodies subjected to their mutual Attraction.*—The form of these differential equations is $m.\frac{ddx}{dt^2}-\left(\frac{d\lambda}{dx}\right)$, the complete integration of which cannot be obtained, except in the case of the system consisting of two bodies only. When the system is composed of more than two bodies, the analysis must have recourse to the methods of approximation.

The subject next treated is the attraction of spheroids; and conclusions the same as those of Newton (sect. 12.) are obtained, though by different methods; viz. that, in the law of nature, a particle within a spherical superficies is at rest, and that spherical superficies and spheres attract in the same manner as if their masses were united at their centres. M. La Place investigates, generally, under what laws of attraction the two curious circumstances just mentioned can take place; a problem which M. *D'Alembert* solved in his *Opuscules*. It appears from the investigation, that all the laws of attraction, in which a sphere acts on an exterior point placed at the distance r from its centre, are comprehended under this formula: $Ar+\frac{B}{r^2}$; if $A=o$, the expression becomes $\frac{B}{r^2}$, the law of nature *: whence

* For, if r be made infinitely great, $Ar+\frac{B}{r^2}$ becomes infinitely great; except $A=o$.

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it appears that, in the infinite number of laws which render the attraction very small at great distances, the law of nature is the only one in which spheres have the property of acting in the same manner as if their masses were united at their centres.

Chapter III. *First Approximation of the Heavenly Motions, or the Theory of the Elliptical Motion.*—In this chapter, are given the integration of the differential equations which determine the relative motion of two bodies mutually attracting each other; the curve described is proved to be a conic section, and the time is expressed by means of a converging series. Also are deduced the finite equations of the elliptical motion; expressions of the mean anomaly, radius vector, and true anomaly, in functions of the excentric anomaly; and a general method for the reductions of functions into series, &c.

M. La Place shews that the law of *Kepler*, viz. that the squares of the periodic times are as the cubes of the axes, is not rigorous, and only obtains in as much as the mutual action of the planets, and their action on the Sun, are neglected.

Chapter IV. *Determination of the Elements of the Elliptical Motion.*—Newton has shewn, in the 17th proposition of his *Principia*, that, if the velocity of projection of the heavenly bodies be given, the elements of their orbits may easily be determined. This M. La Place demonstrates conformably to his preceding methods; if V be the velocity of the revolving body, U the velocity in a circle, radius$=1$, then $V^2=U^2\left\{\frac{2}{r}-\frac{1}{a}\right\}$; which equation gives the semi-axis major a, by means of the body's primitive motion, and primitive distance from the body round which it revolves.

The principal part of this chapter is occupied with the theory of Comets. The author observes that the preceding formulas, for determining the elements of the planets' orbits, cannot be applied, since observation does not make known the circumstances of their primitive motion: but that the elements of their orbits may be determined by means of their oppositions and conjunctions, and easily, since the excentricity of the orbits and their inclination to the ecliptic are very small. Besides, the planets may be continually observed; and, by the comparison of a great number of observations, the elements of their orbits may be corrected. The case is widely different respecting Comets; which can only be observed towards their perihelion; and which, returning after a long succession of ages, cannot be recognized with any certainty. To determine the elements of their orbits by the observations of the appearance of a comet, is beyond the reach and powers of analysis; we must have recourse to the methods of approximation to determine the

the first elements of their orbits, and then to subsequent corrections.

M. La Place then states what he deems the best method of determining the elements of the orbits of Comets, and proceeds to the detail of their determination.

Chapter V. *General Methods for determining, by successive Approximations, the Motions of the Heavenly Bodies.*

Chapter VI. *Second Approximation of the Heavenly Motions, or the Theory of their Perturbations.*

Chapter VII. *On the secular Inequalities of the Heavenly Motions.*—The theory of these inequalities is one of the most interesting points in the System of the World. Misunderstood for a while during the time of *Euler*, *D'Alembert*, and *Clairaut*, it made the beautiful structure of the Newtonian Philosophy to totter. Even the most deliberate mathematicians began to think that the system of the immortal Newton, instead of being the sturdy and genuine offspring of truth, was only one of those many specious and unreal creations of fancy, which Time is perpetually destroying; or which it suffers only to remain as the monuments at once of the strength and the weakness of the human mind.

Chapter VIII. *Second Approximation of the Heavenly Motions.*—

———"*Nos immensum confecimus æquor.*"

We here, for the present, close our account of this work, not reluctantly; more desirous, however, of recruiting a weariness which is the consequence of mental exertion, than of relieving a lassitude caused by objects which are deficient in variety or interest. For the exercise of that species of criticism, the office of which is the detection of errors and the suggestion of improvements, we have here found little opportunity, and felt less inclination. From those who are acquainted with the genius and acquirements of the author of the present work, and who are sensible of the intricacy and abstruseness of its subject, we need fear no reprehension when we confess that we approached it with deference and mental submission, such as stilled all the petulant suggestions of vain and minute criticism. In the perusal and meditation of the volumes, we have endeavoured to preserve the freedom, promptitude, and activity of our minds, rather to apprehend truth than to detect error. Unwilling to fill and disgrace the seat of criticism with affected dignity and specious learning, we have been contented to descend from it, and to follow the footsteps of a master; consequently, we have sometimes found ourselves entangled and bewildered in the intricacies of a subtle analysis. Yet this mode is surely more becoming and politic, than it would have been, in general and ambiguous terms, with the affectation of perspicacity

spicacity and profound judgment, to have flippantly complained of obscure principles, unmethodical arrangement, illogical inferences, and inconsequent conclusions. It would not have been difficult to have done this; for, such is the subtle, pliant, and accommodating nature of words, that from their texture may be made either a cloak for ignorance, or a garb to resemble that of real wisdom. Let it be the praise of the severe sciences, that, if under their rigorous discipline, as some maintain whom the world reputes wise, the mind is rendered callous to the beauties of works of taste and sentiment, yet its vanity and self-deception are powerfully restrained *. The philosopher, acquiring truth slowly and sparingly, after long and patient meditation, learns to form a just and measureable standard of his acquirements; and when, as it frequently happens after long research, he finds himself ignorant of what he hoped and expected to know, he will not feel much disposition to labour at deceiving others.

In a future Number, we shall examine the contents of the second volume, take a retrospect of the whole work, distinguish what parts of it belong to M. La Place as original inventor, and conclude with a few observations on the rise and growth of physical astronomy.

[*To be continued.*] R. Wood.....

Art. III. *L'Inde en rapport avec L'Europe;* &c. *i. e.* India, as connected with Europe; a Work divided into two Parts; the first treating on the Political Interests of India; the second, on the Commerce of that Country. Containing Views useful to all Nations who have Colonies, particularly in Africa, Asia, or the East Indies; presenting a detailed, exact, and frightful Picture of English Machiavelism in this last Country; and offering to the French Government, and to Commerce, a certain Resource in the Re-establishment, maturely considered, and so much feared by our Rivals, of a Sovereign East India Company, with exclusive Privilege. By Anquetil Duperron, Traveller to the East Indies, Member of the former Academy of Inscriptions, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1798. London, Dulau and Co. Price 12s.

The author of these volumes, who long enjoyed the office of Oriental Interpreter to the King of France, had the merit of undertaking a voyage to India, in his earliest youth, solely with the view of recovering the writings of Zeratusht. After his return, he published his discoveries, under the title of Zendavesta †; a work which provoked a multitude of learned and pointed criticisms. His "*Legislation Orientale* ‡" appeared

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* M. *Condillac* justly observes that a philosopher is neither vain nor modest.

† See M. Rev. vol. xlv. p. 561. ‡ See M Rev. vol. lxi. p. 553.

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in 1778, and has frequently been quoted as authority by subsequent writers. A Latin, Hinduvi, and French Dictionary was also corrected by him at the desire of the papal court. In 1788, he completed his "*Récherches Historiques et Géographiques sur l'Inde;*" and in 1789 he published an essay entitled, "*La Dignité du Commerce,*" which comprized the substance of the performance now before us.

The interesting labors of this indefatigable Orientalist are not yet concluded: at the advanced age of 70, he is now engaged in printing at Strasburgh a work in two volumes, which (he assures us) will explain the antient and mysterious doctrines of the Hindus. 'There only remains,' he says, 'in order completely to fulfil my promise, to give to the public a dictionary of the Hinduvi, Malabar, Telinga, and Sanscrit languages, together with a Sanscrit Grammar; all of which are now among my papers, and only require arrangement.' Sir W. Jones said that M. ANQUETIL most certainly had no knowlege of Sanscrit; be that as it may, the public will soon be in possession of his Sanscrit dictionary.

It affords us a pure and sincere gratification when we again behold, on our lists, the names of those respectable writers whose productions enlightened and embellished the fallen monarchy of France; we consider them as old and estimable acquaintances, who have survived a most perilous shipwreck. M. ANQUETIL has in this respect been more fortunate than his more eminent countrymen, *Bailli* and *Lavoisier*: but we should have learnt with unmixed concern the ruined state of his fortune, had the work before us not been presented as a national gift towards accomplishing the invasion of this country.

'The soldier speaks only of warlike expeditions; the agent and the merchant enter into the details of manufactures, of cargoes, and of ships; the minister relates political events, and presents statements of finance and revenue. "India, as connected with Europe," without treating particularly of any of them, comprehends them all, by presenting facts, giving notions, and suggesting ideas connected with these subjects; and by pointing out the method of treating, under every circumstance, with the Moors, the Mahrattas, the Malabars, and the Bengalese; and of forming with those nations solid connections, sanctioned by equity and humanity, and advantageous to both parties.'

Such is the design of this performance; which was sent by its author for publication to Neufchatel, in 1782, but was recalled by order of the minister, M. *de Vergennes*, lest the English should avail themselves of the information which it contained, to correct the imperfections of their Indian system. Since the period of its first composition, something has been added:

added: but it is not always easy to discriminate those observations which apply to remote facts, from allusions to such as are more recent. The time of its publication corresponds with that of General *Bonaparte*'s embarkation, on an expedition destined ultimately against our Oriental dominions; was M. ANQUETIL consulted by the French Directory on this occasion? Were his views intended to guide the General after his arrival in India?—Though the materials were so long collected, the work bears evident marks of being published precipitately, in its want of cohesion; and the observations are seldom applicable to the present state of Indian politics. Apparently, however, the author writes much at his ease, and with great confidence; and he declaims with energy against the fatal spirit of revolutionary enthusiasm, which, in 1790, annihilated the exclusive privilege of the East India Company of France. Alas! what has it not annihilated?

Introduction.—The facility which attended the establishment of colonies in America, and the rapid progress of population and agriculture which succeeded, are easily explained from the particular situation of that extensive and fertile, but thinly peopled country. They afford no analogy applicable to the conduct of such enterprizes in Hindustan, where every circumstance is dissimilar: the length of the voyage; the accidents to which it is exposed; the necessity of possessing an intermediate station; the pre-occupation of all the lands by a numerous, warlike, and highly civilized people; and the necessity of continual importations to maintain the European population; constitute only a few of the particulars, which render the colonial system of the new world inapplicable to settlements in Hindustan. To adopt a system purely commercial, like that of the Dutch, were to expose the factories a defenceless prey to any power, native or European, which might attack them: if purely military, like that of the French under M. *Dupleix*, the expences become enormous, and the company bankrupts:—the English have attempted to unite both systems: but, in this writer's opinion, their conquests must ultimately prove the destruction of their commerce, and the extinction of that nation in India. 'The first enterprizing chief, Moor or Hindu, reanimating in Bengal those hopes which a long tyranny has not been able to extinguish, will consummate the revolution.'

Chap. 1. *Political Interests of India.*—The contents of this chapter will appear to have little correspondence with its title. The distant productions of nature and art, when first introduced into a country, are considered by the natives as objects of curiosity: but they soon become familiar, and after-

ward necessary. This has been the cause of wars among barbarous nations, unable to procure these newly discovered luxuries by purchase or barter; this has excited emigrations; this caused the irruption of the barbarians into the Roman empire; and finally, this prompted the invasion of Hindustan by the nations of Europe. Before the arrival of the Europeans, the quantity of gold, and particularly of silver, in that country, being comparatively inconsiderable, the necessaries of life were procured by the natives at a low price, and the revenue of the state was proportioned to the quantity of circulating medium. An inland trade, however, was carried to a great extent; and their manufactures were exported by sea to Ormus, Jedda, Moca, Achin, Siam, and China; the returns of which were remitted partly in the precious metals. This influx bore little proportion to that which succeeded the arrival of the Europeans, and which has continued with little interruption ever since; the price of commodities, taxes, and luxury, increased with the increase of specie; and this progression, which has subsisted above two centuries, cannot now be interrupted without being productive of serious inconveniencies. This fatal interruption, however, (says the author,) has been accomplished by the English; who, after having taken possession of an extensive and fertile territory, seize on the articles for which they have occasion under the name of tribute, at a rate fixed by themselves; the remaining revenue suffices for every charge, and consequently supersedes the necessity of importing specie; the fortunes of individuals, sent forth like an army of insects to devour the grass when it appears above ground, are exported from India, never to return; and lastly, by pre-occupying the market, they have excluded the traders of the circumjacent countries. Thus, the manufactures of Bengal are exported without an equivalent, and the door is shut against any influx from another quarter. The right of property constitutes the security of man united in society. The Indians possess this right to the riches which their country produces; and, stimulated by the increasing scarcity of specie, they will not long suffer it to be invaded with impunity.

On this statement, we shall only remark that M. ANQUETIL is deceived in supposing that the English Company demand manufactures as tribute; their investments are bought, and payment for them is made, with more regularity than those of private merchants. The necessity of importing specie is, indeed, obviated by the revenues of their territorial possessions. This obstacle to the progressive increase in the quantity of the signs of wealth is not, however, productive of any positive diminution; and after all, how far their abundance furnishes a

means, or an indication, of national prosperity and happiness, is a problem which still remains to be solved.—From these observations, our readers must not imagine that we propose to combat all the reflections, injurious to our countrymen in India, which M. ANQUETIL has thought fit to advance; the task would be too laborious: we must return to our analysis.

2. *Political Interests of the People and Princes of India, with regard to each other, and to the European Settlements in that Country.* —States, in their connections with each other, must be regarded as individuals; they have their distinct characters: but the *fides Punica* is common to all commercial nations. The Hindus are separated from the Mahomedans by their religion, but still more by their personal interests; they consider the latter as intruders, and still cherish the hope of expelling them finally from Hindustan. These pretensions are advanced particularly by the Mahrattas: whose uniform policy is to reduce the Mahomedan power in India; to prevent the irruptions of the Afghans; and even to encourage the settlement of Europeans, in order to enrich themselves with their spoils, and to furnish an additional check to the aggrandizement of their opponents. Besides, these settlements supply the Mahrattas with arms, engineers, and gold. The empire of Delhi can only be restored by an army from Persia, or Tartary; while the Emperor attaches himself to the Patans or Mahrattas, he will experience only a series of disappointments; and the perfidy of the English, on whose assistance he relied to mount the throne of his ancestors, was such as to oblige him to take flight,—too happy to escape from their hands*. All the inferior states, which have risen on the ruins of the Mogul empire, have an interest in cultivating the alliance of Europeans, to protect them against the dangerous neighbourhood of the Mahrattas, and of Tippu. The Patans (by this appellation, the author understands the subjects of Zuman Shah Abdalli) never lose sight of the throne of Delhi; and in their ostensible design of assisting the Emperor, they really intend to gain a footing in his dominions.

'That portion of their territory, which comprehends the western provinces of Multan and Sind, would be enriched by the commerce of Europe; which would supply the Afghans with military succours, fire-arms, gold and silver, against the Persians and Tartars; and, furnishing an outlet for the produce of their mountains, would augment their agriculture, population, and industry. It is certain that,

* In our account of Captain Francklin's history of this Prince, our readers will find a narrative of this transaction, thus singularly distorted by the present author. See M. Rev. vol. xxvii. N. S. p. 86.

if (instead of devouring ourselves alive, and preparing for our posterity, by the struggles of an anarchy worse than despotism, a tempestuous futurity which France did not merit,) we had turned our attention towards romantic enterprizes, a body of 6000 French, disembarked at the mouth of the Indus, with a good provision of light artillery, in an army of Patans commanded by such a chief as Abdalli, might have atchieved the conquest of the North of India. I say of the north, because their arms will never penetrate into the Peninsula.'

Hindustan has been invaded by the Turanians and by the Iranians; by Darius, son of Hystaspes, and by Alexander the Great; by the Patans of Gaur, and by the Moguls; by the Portuguese, and by the English. None of the former nations have been permitted to retain their conquests in that country; and 'perhaps the immense possessions of the English will experience the same vicissitude before the termination of the eighteenth century.' The Hindu power has never been totally reduced; it is now concentrated in the Mahratta States; in time it will gain Delhi, and it will again advance to Thibet, the antient cradle of the religion and sacred language of India. After 600 years of combats, from the time at which Delhi submitted to the Mahomedan yoke, it may perhaps find itself re-instated in its primitive splendor, principally through the preponderance of the Mahrattas.

3. *Hyder Ali Khan and Tippu Sultan.*—Under this head, the author inquires whether the French ought to throw their weight into the scale of the Mysorean hero (as he is pleased to call the late Sultan), or attach themselves to the Mahrattas. The considerations, that induce him to determine in favor of the latter, are similar to the observations which we have just quoted. 'In India, the antient powers always, in time, resume their ascendancy. This is rather the effect of their *vis inertiæ*, than of their active force. The system of religion contributes to it, as well as the nature of the country, which, intersected by mountains, conceals the generation of the vanquished, and gives them leisure to recruit; and the veneration which the people always preserve for the blood of their antient Rajahs, respected even in women.' These circumstances have nourished, and will continue to extend, the Mahratta force. 'But who is Tippu Sultan? The son of a rebel. His troops will desert, or even besiege him in his camp, if fortune begins to abandon him. The prejudice of birth [the author might have added, the impression of justice,] is against him. If the French espouse his cause, his turbulent disposition must involve them in perpetual warfare. He is now supported only by his military talents.' To act the part of a mediator is most agreeable to the character of the French in all disputes between the native princes: 'But

shall

shall we suffer (exclaims M. ANQUETIL,) the French flag to appear with secondary dignity in the East? Shall we abandon Bengal to the avidity of our rivals? If the French must unsheath the sword, the unhappy have the first right to our assistance: but the unfortunate honest man, (the States of America and Bengal,) not an usurper, or conqueror, (Tippu Sultan.)'

Although the preceding passages were probably written before 1782, they exhibit the genuine spirit of the present Republican Government of France. Assuming that the Bengalese are unhappy under the English jurisdiction, it follows that to liberate them from their subjection were a service to humanity: but, have the Bengalese carried their complaints to M. ANQUETIL? Would their misery appear so great, if France were to derive no advantage from their cure? Does a spirit of conquest never assume the disguise of disinterested philanthropy?

4. *Political Delineation of the Military Operations of the English, in India, from* 1756 *to* 1783.—This article, which is even more desultory than any of the former, relates chiefly to the campaigns in the Mahratta country, in behalf of Ragonat Row. It concludes with the following remark:

'The English of Bengal are conquerors; those of the coast of Coromandel, financiers; those of the coast of Malabar, freebooters: in this assemblage, where can we recognize the Company? The master is ruined; the servants are opulent; he who enriched them (Mr. Hastings) is in chains. To finish the romance, the nation, while she confesses that her decline proceeds from an excess of health, ought to recompense nobly the services of this great man; and, better advised, relinquish *bonâ fide* her vast, but dangerous, nay fatal possessions, in all parts of India, particularly on the coast of Malabar.'

We leave our readers to discover the consistency and good sense of this last passage.

5. *Discussion of the Principles of the British Parliament, on the Situation and Government of Bengal.*—Into this discussion it would be superfluous to enter, since its object is only to prove what no one ever doubted; viz, that the Parliament, by sanctioning the treaty of Allahabad, evinced its determination to retain the territorial possessions therein ceded.

6. *Plan of Administration for India.*—Strongly impressed with the necessity of a perfect knowlege of the native languages, in those to whom the conduct of the Company's affairs may be committed, the author proposes that youths of promising genius and liberal education shall be selected, and sent at the age of 25 to different parts of India, to acquire this knowlege. They are subsequently to be employed as interpreters;

preters; to rise by regular gradation to the highest offices; and, after their return to Europe, to be incorporated in a Board, to whom the correspondence is to be intrusted. Though M. ANQUETIL's suggestions supply nothing that is very profound, or very novel, yet he has here occasion to discuss two important questions: 1st, Whether the Company's servants should rise by seniority? 2dly, Whether the chiefs should be permitted to trade? These he determines (as we think) on the soundest principles of policy: the first in the affirmative; the latter in the negative.

7. *Commerce of India.*—This chapter is indisputably the most important that is contained in the work. Considering the French connection with India as terminated for the present; the author inquires, in the event of its revival at a future period, what situations are best adapted for commercial and political views in that country.

'Pondicheri, without a port, without a bay, without direct and necessary communications with the Decan, without any article of commerce which is not supplied elsewhere, without natural defence, and which must sometimes be furnished with corn from the coast of Malabar, is little calculated to continue the centre of the French establishments in India. The coast of Malabar, on the other hand, is recommended by the following considerations. 1st, There is less risque of revolutions, by the multitude of small states; divided interests prevent the union of force. 2d, It would be possible to seize on the passes of the mountains, which lie at no great distance, and thus secure the key of the internal commerce of Hindustan. 3d, A solid connection with the Mahrattas, a warlike and faithful people, would insure us an uninterrupted commerce. 4th, A correspondence between Bombay, Bengal, and China, has existed from time immemorial. 5th, The intercourse between the Malabar coast and Bassora, Moca, Suez, the Isle of France, Madagascar, and the Cape of Good Hope, is natural and easily maintained. 6th, A ready communication with the north of Hindustan, with the Patans, the Persians, and even with the Turks.'

Commercial considerations, drawn from the productions of this coast, are not less cogent, in the author's opinion, to induce his countrymen to transfer their chief Presidency from the East Coast to the West.—'But, where shall this ~~coast~~ Presidency be placed? That of Bombay, in an island almost contiguous to that of Salset, is now the only one in India capable of admitting and repairing ships of 74 guns. It would be the most useful conquest which France could undertake in those seas; and it is less difficult than it is generally supposed: having the Mahrattas on our side, it is only necessary to seize a fit opportunity.' We elsewhere find the following passages; 'Let us suppose the French placed at Goa, or in any other considerable place in

in the northern part of the Malabar coast; the Isle of France, of Bourbon, and a good settlement at Madagascar, will form, with the presidency on the coast, a triangle, which will insure the exclusive navigation of the Red Sea and the Gulph of Persia.'

8. In the last portion of this publication, M. ANQUETIL examines what is *the surest and most advantageous Method of conducting the Commerce with India;* and he determines decidedly in favor of an exclusive company, against what is termed a free trade. To support this opinion, he enters into a review of all the publications, English, Spanish, and French, which have treated this subject; and he refutes with much acuteness the arguments of his opponents. This point was discussed at so much length and with such eminent ability by Mr. Dundas, in our House of Commons, previously to the last renewal of the Company's charter, that we have derived little accession of knowlege from this part of M. ANQUETIL's production. It may prove, however, of much service to his countrymen, should Indian commerce attract, at a future period, the attention of their Government. He was aware that the idea of exclusive privileges, and public monopolies, would rouse against him an entire host of economists; and he therefore attacks, with some powers of ridicule, the universal principles, the intuitive knowlege, and the dogmatic philosophy, of this sect.

'I reduce to eight propositions, (says M. ANQUETIL,) the ideas which I have adopted from a personal inspection of the country, combined with the perusal of all the works composed on this subject, in the countries most interested in the commerce of India. Personal inspection! Perusal of books! exclaims the sublime genius whom nature has formed to govern the universe; What did you see there? You saw mountains, rivers, trees, rocks, towns, and men; you have been dipping into collections of old opinions, of obsolete prejudices; What does all that prove? The National Assembly was petitioned to decree, that no person under 40 years of age should be a member of the Military Committee. The answer was, at 40 you must have seen soldiers, cannons, and forts; are you more skilful on that account? and the petition was very properly rejected. Man conducts himself by great ideas, applicable to every quarter of the globe. This confused crowd of facts, and of observations, obscures and conceals truth, which shews herself only to those privileged souls who are truly free.'

We shall terminate our account of this production by extracting the writer's concluding observations:

'It is time that this pretended genius should cease in France, or at least that it should yield to the good sense of our ancestors; who were better skilled than we are in matters of government, on which they had bestowed more attention. Have we been hired by our neighbours to dry up the sources of national riches? Let us, if we

chuse, vary our amusements. To day, operas, comedies, balloons, parachutes, Martinism, Mesmerism, convulsionism, Cagliostrism, theophilanthropism; to morrow, constitutional clubs, legislature, theatric morality, discourses on liberty, humanity, uniforms, patroles, military exercises, &c. &c.: but let us for ever renounce famine and blood. These atrocious resources are not in character; the Frenchman abhors them. He is brave; the pusillanimous soul is cruel. Ease, the companion of gaiety, abandons a country in which the implacable demagogue, always in the name of liberty, violates or silences the law, and holds in chains the proud soul which disdains to bend before him. The rights of man, of whatever condition, are certain: but I do not wish them to be inscribed on my heart by the point of the bayonet. Let me be free, of my own accord, and not in order to escape a capital punishment. Our fanaticism, much diminished already from what it was, will subside entirely. The India Company will be established in its original state; and abuses, the inseparable companions of riches and authority, will plunge it anew into the same misfortunes which have caused its ruin. Such is the course of human events. I terminate this work by a portrait drawn with a masterly hand, of those Frenchmen to whom, in our present circumstances, India may offer a resource, a plank after shipwreck. "First, to those to whom, though but for an instant, a new atmosphere is become necessary; those who, left in solitude, have lost by the sword of the assassin all which embellished their natal soil; those for whom it is become unproductive; those who there find nothing but regret or remorse; and those who cannot determine to place hope where they have only experienced disappointment; that multitude of political maniacs, those inflexible characters, whom no argument can convert, no event can undeceive; those who always think themselves confined in their own country; greedy speculators, and adventurous speculators; and men who burn to connect their names with discoveries, with the foundation of towns, and with civilization: he for whom France, as now constituted, is still too agitated; he for whom it is too calm; those who can brook no equals, and those who disdain all dependance."—*Talleyrand, dans le compte rendu.*'

'If all these descriptions of persons must be included in the projected expedition, the natives of Hindustan may well exclaim, "*Quod procul à nobis flectat, Fortuna gubernans!*"—

LUCRET. Ham.

ART. IV. *Leçons D'Histoire*, &c.; *i. e.* Lectures on History, delivered at the Normal School. By F. VOLNEY, Member of the Institute. 8vo. pp. 250. Paris. 1799. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5s. sewed.

AFTER having suffered ten months' imprisonment, M. VOLNEY was exiled from Paris in the 2d year of the Republic: but he was very shortly afterward nominated Professor of History in

in the Normal School *, and was recalled. The lectures contained in this volume were commenced on the 20th of January following; and, according to the rules observed among the Professors, they were delivered from notes; which, being taken down at the time by writers in short hand, have undergone a slight revision, and are printed. The lectures are six in number: of which, the first three have received no additional correction. The author complains that he had only fifteen days to prepare himself: but, history having been during so many years his favorite study, a longer time was probably not necessary.

M. Volney regards history, in the state in which it has hitherto appeared, as the most fruitful source of our prejudices and errors. He advances as a maxim, that we derive our prejudices and false ideas from others by our excess of credulity; and that all our true and exact sentiments spring from our own reflection and experience. This remark, if applied to history only, (and we believe that it is not otherwise intended,) requires some grains of allowance. Men cannot be less liable to receive false impressions from their own misconceptions, than from adopting those of others. The latter part of the position is likewise made too general: history, imperfect as it is, may not be condemned as wholly incapable of communicating moral truths:—yet we nevertheless give full credit to the author's opinion of the mischievous consequences, which have resulted from the generality of readers delivering up their judgments to the historian.—He proposes these lectures as a general preface to history, by way of *preliminary*, to caution the reader against the *empiricism* of historians, and against *his own illusive ideas*: which is granting that we do sometimes *help ourselves to the wrong*.

The first lecture is short, being intended merely as introductory to the rest. It states the particular objects of inquiry, and the method proposed to be pursued, which is in the order following; first, to examine the character of history among different people, and at different ages; thence to inquire what degree of confidence ought to be attached to the relations of history in general, and also in certain particular cases. What importance ought we to attribute to historical facts? What practical utility ought we to propose by the study or by the teaching of history? To what class or classes of citizens, is the study of history most properly suited? What general

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* From *Norma*, v. *Normalis*. M. Volney remarks on the word; 'that is to say, *directress* and *conductress*, which express the real sense of the word *norma*.'

truths

truths are the most interesting to deduce from history? (In this last head of inquiry, he reckons the estimating the progress of the sciences and civilization.) What is the degree of civilization to which the present race of mankind have attained: and what general indications of farther improvement does history afford?

In the first part of the inquiry, the author remarks on the difference between tradition and written history, and on the effects produced on history by the invention of printing; which he regards as the establishment of an epoch that divides, into two different systems, the moral and political state of mankind before and after that discovery; insomuch that, to determine whether a people ought to be esteemed polished or barbarous, it is sufficient to inquire whether they understand the use of printing and have the liberty of the press.

M. VOLNEY recommends, as the most favorable disposition of mind for receiving historical instruction, a cautiousness of belief: 'he who believes much, deceives himself greatly.' He very amply discusses the nature of the evidence transmitted to us from antiquity, and explains the great difficulty of establishing the precise state of any fact. He asks 'Whether posterity do not often receive and sanction the evidence of the strong oppressor, who has effectually stifled adverse claims and protests?' The Romans and Greeks, he observes, actuated by a spirit of proud and intolerant egotism, annihilated the books of other nations, and destroyed (as far as they could) every testimony which tended to their own discredit.—Speaking of the ruin and misery to which the antient conquerors reduced other nations, he remarks that in Dionysius of Halicarnassus, in Polybius, or even in Tacitus, there will be found none of those movements of indignation, which the picture of so many horrors as they have transmitted to us ought to have excited. 'Love of their country was in them a ferocious, selfish principle, which sanctioned hatred to all other countries.'—Tacitus, who is esteemed (we believe, justly,) as one of the most considerate of the Roman historians, mentions the destruction of some of the German nations by wars among themselves, as a piece of good fortune to the Romans; and he founds his hopes of safety to the Roman empire, on the prospect of others being exterminated in the same manner.

The author proposes another question;—Whether it be not as ridiculous to pretend that facts become clearer and better understood by the lapse of time, as to maintain that objects become more distinct as their distance increases? To this it may be replied, that, in perspective, there is one point of view preferable to the nearer as well as to the more remote station; so,

so, in distance of time for regarding events, there will often be found advantages which were not attainable by a nearer view. Time, while it removes passions and prejudices, digests and not unfrequently adds to the materials.

Among the causes of obscurity, and the reasons for distrusting historians, M. VOLNEY notices the little that is ever known of political negociations, on which so much depends; their unavoidable ignorance of many things which they have boldly asserted; and the various motives to partiality by which they have been actuated; all strengthening his argument for the necessity of reading with caution, and rigidly exercising our own judgment.

Notwithstanding his scepticism, the author allows that, within the last hundred years, history has taken a more philosophic character than in early times; and he has endeavoured, from the series of events, to establish an order (which he calls *genealogical*) of causes and their consequent effects, and thence to deduce principles and rules of action.

The utility of history is considered under three heads; its application to *morals*, to *science*, and to *legislation*. The first is reckoned doubtful, the good examples to be found in history being more than balanced by the bad: but the author acknowleges the obligations of *science* and *legislation* to history. To give some idea of the effects which particular histories have produced on mankind, he mentions, among other instances, his opinion that the reading of Homer occasioned the conquest of Asia by Alexander; and he remarks that the reading of Q. Curtius produced in Charles XII. of Sweden the *mania* of imitating Alexander. 'If,' says he, 'the historian and the poet had accompanied their recitals with judicious reflections on the many evils produced by the rage of conquest, and, instead of blaspheming the name of virtue by applying it to warlike actions, had exposed their extravagance and wickedness, the minds of the two young princes would most probably have received another direction.'

We shall not remark on all the objects of M VOLNEY's inquiry: but the plan which he recommends for composing history claims particular notice. One of his opinions, also, concerning *instruction*, it may be of some use to mention. He believes that *biography* is the only kind of history that is proper for very young people.

To form a history on the most useful model, the author proposes to begin by describing the climate, its temperature in the different seasons, the customary winds, quantity of rain, &c. Next, the physical constitution of the soil; that is to say, the quantity of surface, plain or mountainous, dry or marshy; the rivers,

rivers, lakes, the general elevation of the land, the different strata and mineralogy, the vegetable productions, the animals, &c. This first ground-work being established, he proposes next to consider the human species, their general temperament, local modifications, the quality and quantity of their food, their most prominent physical and moral qualities, their distribution as inhabitants of towns or of the country; as labourers, artisans, merchants, military, and agents of government. Finally, the system of government, of revenue, commerce, exterior relations, &c. &c. History, he observes, thus embraces the body politic in all its parts, and, (similarly to the nature of biography,) attaching itself to a nation as to an individual, follows through the continuance of its physical and moral existence; and, having previously placed in order all the facts of existence, from their action may more satisfactorily be deduced the causes of advancement or of decay.

To reform history, and to improve it to this standard, the author observes, 'would demand a numerous society of fellow-labourers. The elements of such a society exist in the different academies of Europe; which, whether by their own efforts or by the emulation which they have inspired, have been (whatever may have been said to the contrary,) the grand source and spring of instruction and of science.' 'Each of the academies, considered as a section of the grand society, should especially occupy itself on the history and monuments of its own country.'

Such are M. VOLNEY's ideas on the composition of history. His plan is of such magnitude, that it would require years to adopt, and probably half a century to complete it; and, after all, history on such a model would be the study only of the few. The great majority of readers would recoil from an undertaking which demanded so much close and persevering attention, and would seek relief in history more lightly constructed: but the benefit of the grand model would not be lost; its spirit would infuse itself into new compositions; and history on a less elaborate plan would be rendered the vehicle of much excellent instruction, both in morality and in the knowlege of human nature.

We have observed, with great satisfaction, that, within a few years past, many sensible writers have shewn a strong disposition to divest history of its false colourings. In the work before us, the author has employed a style less florid, and has addressed himself less to the feelings, than in some of his former publications. His view of the subject is comprehensive, his matter is argumentative, and his method is clear. The proposed object of his lectures we regard as highly beneficial,

ficial, and we trust that the publication of them will not be without effect.

In his last lecture, M. VOLNEY proposed to resume the subject after some respite, and to illustrate his maxims by examples: but the Normal School being shortly afterward dissolved, the design was relinquished.

We must not omit to mention that, in one of his lectures, the author has introduced a short dissertation on the construction of halls for deliberative assemblies. The object to which he has principally attended is that of enabling a speaker, with ease, to make himself distinctly heard. Where it is otherwise, he observes, a debate will be frequently carried by strength of lungs. The plan recommended is accompanied with a drawing.—In a note to the same lecture, M. VOLNEY has made a comparison between *Voltaire* and *J. J. Rousseau*, which we submit to the judgment of our readers.

'There is this characteristic difference between *Rousseau* and *Voltaire*, considered as leaders of opinions; that if you attack *Voltaire* before his partizans, they defend him without heat, by reasoning or by pleasantry, and at most only regard you as a man of bad taste: but, if you attack *Rousseau* before his admirers, you excite in them a species of religious horror. and they consider you as flagitious.—*Voltaire*, speaking more to the understanding than to the heart, to thought rather than to sentiment, excites no passion; by having been occupied more in combating the opinions of others than in establishing his own, he has produced a habit of doubt, more favourable to tolerance than is that of affirmation. *Rousseau*, on the contrary, addresses the heart and the affections, rather than the understanding; he exalts the love of virtue and of truth (without defining them) by the love of women, so capable of creating illusion; and from a strong persuasion that his own principles are perfect, he suspects in others first the opinion, and afterward the intention:—a situation of mind whence proceed aversion and intolerance.'

Capt. B....y.

ART. V. *Traité du Calcul Differentiel*, &c.; *i. e.* A Treatise on the Differential and Integral Calculus. By S. F. LA CROIX. 4to. 2 Vols. pp. 520 and 730. Paris.—Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 2l. 2s.

THE reasons assigned for the publication of the present work, by M. M. *La Place* and *Legendre*, who were appointed to examine it, are the scarcity of the works of Euler on the differential and integral calculus, the improvements which have been made in all branches of analysis since the time of that mathematician, and the difficulty of access to the volumes of the several academies, among which so many important memoirs are dispersed.

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In the plan of this work, it is proposed to comprehend and systematize all that has been written on the differential and integral calculus; an undertaking of great utility, labour, and difficulty: since, from the time of Newton to the present day, there has not been produced a single treatise which was at once clear and profound. With deep and intricate disquisitions on the differential and integral calculus, the analytic art has indeed been most abundantly enriched:—but the real source of complaint arises from obscurity and want of evidence in its principles. Although, to remove this obscurity, and to vindicate the stability on which the doctrine of fluxions is built, many elaborate treatises have been written, the greater part of them abound with absurdity and sophistry, and excite a doubt whether the praise which Bacon gives to the mathematics, of habituating the mind to just reasoning, be really due to them. Who would direct his ridicule against the refinements, subtleties, and trifling of the schoolmen, if he read what has been written by some men who were presumed to be the greatest masters of reason, and whose employment and peculiar privilege consisted in deducing truth by the justest inferences from the most evident principles? The history of the differential calculus, indeed, shews that even mathematicians sometimes bend to authority and a name, are influenced by other motives than a love of truth, and occasionally use (like other men) false metaphysics and false logic. No one can doubt this, who reads the controversial writings to which the invention of fluxions gave rise: he will there find most exquisite reasonings concerning quantities which survived their grave, and, when they ceased to exist, did not cease to operate; concerning an infinite derivation of velocities,—and a progeny of infinitesimals smaller than the "moonshine's wat'ry beams," and more numerous than

> ——— "Autumnal leaves that strow the brooks
> In Vallombrosa." (Milton, Par. Lost. I. 302.)

The contemporaries and partizans of Newton were men infinitely inferior to him in genius: but they had zeal, and were resolved to defend his opinions and judgments *. Hence they undertook the vindication of fluxions, according to the principles and method of its author; although it may be fairly inferred, from the different explanations given of that doctrine by New-

* The following passage, from the masterly preface of Torelli, was aimed at the partizans of Newton: "*Qui vero, quod unus aliquis affirmaverit, id ita esse sine ulla probatione credit, præpostere agit; dum id homini tribuit, quod unice rationi tribuendum est.*"

ton

ton in different parts of his works, that Newton himself was not perfectly satisfied of the stability of the grounds on which he had established it. It was not to be expected that pigmies should effect that which had baffled a giant: but they acted as men always act in similar circumstances. Bigoted to their opinion, yet, unable to establish it by evident and just reasoning, they employed the arts of sophistry; and hence arose elaborate and refined disquisitions concerning nothings, and perplexing paradoxes concerning the infinite divisibility of matter, abstract extension, and velocities that were to be conceived independently of time and space. The "ghosts of departed quantities," a mighty host of "shadowy entities," were conjured up to enthrall the common sense of mankind. That men, and even those who assùme the title of philosophers, should fall into error and absurdity, is no great matter for wonder; history has its thousand similar instances: but it may justly create surprize that Newton, who had invented the method of series, and who to solve a problem * in the second book of his *Principia* had employed first the method of series and then that of fluxions, should not have given to the latter a more natural and scientific origin; and that, in the collision of opposite arguments, more truth should not have been elicited;—because all men, however they might admire, did not believe Newton to be infallible, and some freely and frequently arraigned the obscurity of his method. We may wonder, also, that, having beyond all controversy obtained *truth*, mathematicians should have been unable to make it *science*; for the method was simple and easy in its application, and exact and rigorous in its conclusions. Viewed as a whole, it appeared to possess the greatest stability; though its foundations, seen through a mist, seemed uncertain, and of discordant and unsuitable materials;

——— "*Minima rerum discordia vexat,*
Pacem summa tenent."

The treatise of M. La Croix is introduced by an excellent preface, containing a history of the differential and integral calculus: which history is properly dated from the times of

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* To find the law of resistance necessary for a heavy body to describe freely a given curve, Newton employed, in the first edition of his *Principia*, the method of series. Here, by neglecting some terms of the series which ought to have been considered, he fell into an error. John Bernouilli detected this error, but not the real cause; and Newton himself, not discerning it, abandoned the method, and gave, in the following edition of his *Principia*, a solution of the same problem according to the method of fluxions.

Euclid and Archimedes, because the methods of exhaustions and limits rest on the same foundation.

'The discovery of the differential and integral calculus (says the writer,) is to be assigned to no higher a period than that of the last age; but the questions which led to its discovery have been discussed since the earliest times of geometry. When the antient geometricians sought to compare curvilinear figures, either one with another, or with rectilinear figures, they were necessitated to give a new turn to their demonstrations. The 12th proposition of the 12th book of Euclid's Elements offers the first essay of this kind of problems, that has come down to us:—its object is to prove that the surfaces of circles are to one another as the squares of their diameters. In this proposition we pass from finite to infinite; since, in the foregoing proposition, Euclid proves that this relation is the same as that of similar polygons described in two different circles; and it seems evident to me that the geometrician, whoever he was, who discovered this truth, perceiving it to be independent of the number of the sides of the polygons, and at the same time that they differed the less from circles as their sides were more numerous, hence necessarily concluded, by virtue of the law of continuity, that the property of the first belonged to the second. By such reasonings, the proposition (their object) is now considered as sufficiently proved; and the generality of elementary books do not give the reasonings equally complete. The antients were more difficult in this respect than we are; they never indulged themselves in the privilege of confounding two quantities which had a difference, however minute that difference might be. To place beyond the reach of doubt and cavil the proposition of which they may be said to have divined the existence, by the considerations which I have mentioned, they sought to prove that the relation of circles to one another could be neither greater nor less than that of the squares of their diameters; and to obtain such proof, they began by shewing that an inscribed polygon might always be found which only differed from the corresponding circumscribed polygon, and *à fortiori* from the circle itself, by a quantity less than any given magnitude.

'Archimedes, by nearly similar methods, advanced to the solution of much more difficult problems; such as the relations between the surfaces and solid contents of the cylinder and sphere, the quadrature of the parabola, and the properties of spirals; but let us not imagine that he arrived at these discoveries by the methods transmitted to us.'—

M. La Croix then proceeds in his history of the differential calculus, as connected with the several discoveries made by Cavalleri, Roberval, Descartes, Fermat, Huygens, Gregoire de St. Vincent, Pascal, Wallis, Barrow, Leibnitz, and Newton. In our critique on M. *Lagrange*'s Theory of Analytical Functions, (App. Rev. vol. xxviii. p. 481.) we entered into this history; and we refrain from quoting the observations of M. La Croix, because they differ so little from those which we have already given to the public. We must confess, however,

ever, that we feel no inconsiderable satisfaction in finding that our opinions on many subjects agree with those of the author of the present treatise. In the article just quoted, we considered particularly the nature of the principle which Newton gave to his doctrine of fluxions; and we shewed that such principle was foreign to the subject, unnecessary, and fictitious; since, when analysed, it was not the real principle from which the doctrine was deduced. M. La Croix says:

'Newton supposed lines to be generated by the motion of a point, and surfaces by the motion of a line; and he gave the name of fluxions to the velocities which regulated the motions. These notions, although rigorous, are foreign to geometry, and their application is difficult. It is very true that, by imagining a point which moves on a line while the line is carried parallel to itself with an uniform velocity, we may represent any curve whatever: but the velocity of the describing point being variable at each instant, we can only determine it by recurring to the method of the antients, to that of exhaustions, or to that of prime and ultimate ratios. It is of this last method that Newton almost always avails himself; so that, properly speaking, fluxions were to him only a means of giving a sensible existence to the quantities on which he operated. By the method of prime and ultimate ratios, he understood the investigation of the relation of quantities at the first and last instant of their existence, when the quantities were generated or vanished together; and he found, in the prime ratio of spaces described by the ordinate on the line of the abscissas, and by the describing point on the ordinate, (spaces which he called moments,) the ratio of the fluxion of the abscissa to that of the ordinate; whence he determined the direction of the tangent. The calculus was merely that used by Barrow in his method of tangents; which Newton, by means of his formula for the binomial, and by his reduction into series, had extended to irrational expressions. The advantage of the method of fluxions over the differential calculus, in point of metaphysics, consists in this; that, fluxions being finite quantities, their moments are only infinitely small quantities of the first order, and their fluxions are finite; by these means, the consideration of infinitely small quantities of superior orders is avoided.'

The controversy between Newton and Leibnitz, concerning the discovery of the fluxionary calculus, is here examined and decided; and here also we agree with M. La Croix, as well as in his opinion concerning the real merit of Leibnitz. The decision of the Committee of the Royal Society is not hastily and inconsiderately to be accused of unjust partiality: but we strongly insist that those men must have had minds deplorably weak, or miserably perverted by party-zeal and national prejudice, who denied the praise of genius to Leibnitz; who, amid a thousand other pursuits, instructed Bernouilli and rivalled Newton, not on subjects of small concern and easy

comprehension, but in a science to which *they* were professedly, solely, and devotedly attached.

In enumerating the mathematicians who had lived since the time of Newton, we mentioned Landen; and the singular instance of his exemption from the prejudices of his countrymen, his solitary fidelity to truth and reason. M. La Croix says; 'I can only mention a method which Landen gave in 1758, to avoid the consideration of infinity of motions, or of fluxions, since it rests on a very elegant algebraic theorem which cannot be given in a work of this nature. The freedom with which Landen divests himself of national prejudice stamps a remarkable character on his work; he is perhaps the only English mathematician, who has acknowleged the inconvenience of the method of fluxions.'—That this is true cannot be doubted: but, surely, the dignity of science, and the spirit and freedom of philosophy, should forbid that it may be true any longer! In an age, in which the zeal that persecuted Copernicus and Galileo is never mentioned without abhorrence, and in which the motives that with-held Tycho from embracing the true system of the world are rather ridiculed than vindicated, let us not be so extravagant in our reverential regard to the great Newton, as obstinately to adhere to a faulty method solely because he was the author of it. The genius of Newton was free, bold, and original; he thought for himself, and brooked no master in science; can we, then, pay him more proper and rational respect than by imitating his conduct? We may not, indeed, like him, discover truths: but the fault and the punishment will be our own, if we cling with infatuation to error. Let us learn to make just distinctions. Questions of ethics and government, in their nature uncertain, perplexed, and contentious, require such minute investigation, extensive knowlege, and deep consideration, that it is almost praise-worthy to bow to the great masters of moral and political wisdom: but of mathematical science the nature is simple, the objects are distinct, and the end is determinate: authority has no weight; and reason sternly demands that every thing shall be conducted strictly and exactly according to its laws. If philosophers be biassed by prejudice, and servilely crouch to a name, what can be expected from the herd? *Hæc si philosophum decent, qualia sint illa quæ decent vulgus et idiotas?*

It would, however, be an excuse for the English mathematicians, for having persevered in the exposition of the doctrine of fluxions according to the principle of motion, if it could be alleged that its inconvenience, and its want of perspicuity and metaphysical exactness, had not been pointed out: but such an

excuse cannot be brought forwards. In an enlightened age, there are always some men who think for themselves, and perform the meritorious duty of exposing absurdity and error. The opponents of Newton were not men of puny intellects: *Landen*, *D'Alembert*, *Torelli*, and *Berkeley*, are of the number. The first (in his residual analysis) not only pointed out the defects of the method which he attacked, but proposed an equivalent method, resting on more sure and suitable foundations. The second,—the most acute, learned, and metaphysical of mathematicians,—analyzed the principle of velocity, and proved it to be fictitious; or, in other words, not to be the real principle from which in practice the fluxionary expressions were deduced. The third,—the nervous *Torelli*, educated under the severe discipline and in the love of the antient geometry,—castigated without mercy the new geometry; which, while it boasted the extent of its powers, forgot the obscurity of its principles and its imprudent sacrifice of perspicuity to illusive and imaginary conciseness. The fourth,—the scrupulous, inquisitive, discerning, and precise *Berkeley*,—with a rich vein of wit and argument, employed against the new doctrine his various and extensive powers; he assailed its logic and metaphysics with his light weapons and his heavy battery, with shafts of ridicule and grave arguments, with sarcastic interrogations and solid objections. Had the native insignificancy of the fluxionary calculus doomed it to perish, the wit and poignant raillery of Berkeley had perpetuated its memory, and "ridiculed it into immortality:"—but, in spite of these attacks, the English mathematicians have still persevered in their opinions; deeming it perhaps more meritorious to err with Newton, than to think justly with other men. Forgetful of the nature and excellence of mathematical reasoning, they have proved principles by conclusions, or have employed methods which are suspicious and indirect; and in demonstration, instead of a firm and immovable conviction, erected by the most just inferences on the surest principles, they have been contented with a rational faith and moral persuasion.

In the latter part of M. La Croix's preface, mention is made of a memoir by *Carnot*, which has been communicated to him; and in which, the principles of the differential calculus are said to be discussed with great care, and this point made evident; that it is by virtue of the law of continuity, that vanishing quantities preserve the same ratio to which they continually approach previously to their state of evanescence.

'This memoir, (says M. La Croix,) which it is to be hoped will soon be made public, proves that, if words had been created only when it was necessary, ideas had been much more evident. In calling

differential equations imperfect equations, *Carnot* throws great light on their theory. In fact, when we consider the differentials which they contain, as representing the increments of variable quantities, they only obtain approximately: but their degree of exactness is in some sort indefinite, because it depends on the degree of minuteness which we give by supposition to the changes of variable quantities; and since nothing bounds this minuteness, the differential equations may be made to approach the truth by any degree of exactness. These are Leibnitz's ideas translated analytically.—After this, *Carnot* makes it appear how imperfect equations become rigorous at the end of the calculation, and by what sign their justness may be recognized: this sign is the total disappearance of the differential quantities, whence the error, were there any, might proceed.—A judgment of the work must not be formed by the little that has been said of it; and it is not only in the manner (peculiar to *Carnot*) of considering the differential calculus that consists the merit of his memoir, but in the comparison of the different views under which this calculus has been presented.'

M. La Croix says that he was first encouraged to undertake the present work by the perusal of *La Grange*'s memoir published in the Berlin Acts for 1772; of which we made mention in our criticism on the analytic functions of that author, already quoted. It was *La Grange*, beyond doubt, who first stated that the differential calculus was merely an ingenious instrument, founded on the method of developing algebraic functions into series. According to this mathematician, every algebraic function might be reduced into a series proceeding according to the powers of the differences of the quantities of which the function was composed, and the coefficients of the terms of which series were independent of the differences. In the research of these coefficients and their properties, the differential calculus consists *.

After the Preface, we find an Introduction; in which the author gives instances of several series, and explains what is meant by the sum of an infinite series. He also explains the term *infinite*, and remarks, after M. *D'Alembert*, that the idea of it is properly negative. In calculation, no infinite quantities

* In a note, in which M. La Croix mentions at what time (1787) he began to collect materials for the present work, he quotes a valuable extract from a letter from M. *La Place*, written in 1792. 'I see with much pleasure that you are engaged in a great work on the differential and integral calculus. The several methods, by being brought together, will throw mutual light on each other; what they contain in common is most generally their true *metaphysique*; and this is the cause why the *metaphysique* is almost always the last thing that is discovered. Genius arrives at results by instinct; and it is only by reflecting on the route which others have followed, that we are able to generalize methods, and to discover their true metaphysics.'

can

can enter; when we speak of them, we do so for the convenience of an abridged mode of expression: but much mistake has arisen from their introduction, because their significancy has not always been explained, and men have tortured their wits to affix to them positive ideas: all calculation can be made independent of them.

A principal proposition in the doctrine of functions is to shew that, in a form proceeding according to the powers of x, $(Ax^n + Bx^m +$ &c.) a value of x can be assigned, such that the first term shall be greater than the sum of the succeeding terms, by any excess. This proposition M. La Croix proves by no very clear and accurate method. M. *La Grange* has likewise proved it by considering the terms of the series into which an algebraic function may be converted, as the ordinates of a curve.

Newton discovered the law of the coefficients of a binomial raised to any power, but was unable to establish the law on strict mathematical demonstration. His method was by inference: but inductive methods never satisfy mathematicians. In the analytic functions of M. *La Grange*, the law for the coefficients of a binomial is an immediate consequence of the general law which obtains for the developement of all algebraic functions: but the method for a general demonstration can always be applied to a particular case. This the present author has done, and the principle of his method is precisely the same as that given in the Analytic Functions: the method is by expanding the trinomial $\overline{p+x+u}^n$ two ways; first considering $p+x$ as one quantity, and next, $x+u$; then, since the two expressions are identical, compare the terms affected with like powers of x and u; whence result the values of the arbitrary coefficients. In one part, however, M. La Croix's proof is deficient; he omits to shew that the developement of $(p+x)^n$ must ascend according to the powers of x.

Next is proved the law for the developement of a multinomial, first given by *De Moivre* in his *Miscellanea Analytica*. This law may be deduced either by aid of the previously established form of the binomial, or by immediately investigating the law on the principle of the establishment of that form. If a be the basis of the system, then if $y=a^x$, x is the logarithm of y, and two problems present themselves; one to determine x and the other y. The common method of solution for these problems is by fluxions, and is objectionable only as far as that branch of analysis is imperfectly treated in its origin. M. La Croix solves these problems by a strict algebraic process, but awkwardly. We are averse from invidious comparisons; yet we

we must observe that M. *La Grange*'s method is far preferable for evidence and conciseness.

As the series for the logarithm is not convergent, except y be nearly equal to unity, it would be of little use for the calculation of logarithms; the author therefore shews how the series may be converted into one which shall quickly converge; thus, since $y=a^x$, $y^m=a^{mx}$, put therefore in the former series y^m for y, and mx for x, and we have

$$x=\log. y=\frac{(y^m-1)-\frac{1}{2}(y^m-1)^2+, \&c.}{mA}$$

where m may be taken such a fraction, that y^m shall differ from 1 by any quantity, how small soever.

After the formulas for the logarithms of quantities, are given the formulas for the sine and cosine of an arc, &c.

In Chapter I. *on the analytic Exposition of the Principles of the Differential Calculus*, the author observes that it is difficult to clearly explain the nature of the differential calculus, to those who are ignorant of its first notions: not that the calculus cannot be rigorously defined, but that the definition must borrow ideas remote from the ordinary circumstances of life, and from the parts of the mathematics which are the object of preceding speculations. 'Happily,' continues the author, 'we are not obliged to commence a treatise with definitions, which, as Pascal says, consist only in imposing a name on things which have clearly been designated in terms perfectly known.'

M. La Croix considers the differential calculus in precisely the same point of view in which M. *La Grange* regarded it in the Berlin Acts for 1772, and subsequently in an express and formal treatise, of which we have frequently made mention. Without adhering closely to M. La Croix's notation and method, we shall endeavour, as briefly as possible, to give the substance and spirit of his reasoning.

Let $u=fx$ be any function of x; then, if for x we substitute $x+h$, the developement of $f(x+h)$ will be of this form:

$$f(x+h)=fx+f'xh+\frac{f''xh^2}{1.2}+, \&c.$$

the coefficients $f'x$, $f''x$, &c. being derived from the primitive function fx, and independent of h.

Hence $f(x+h)-fx=f'xh+\frac{f''xh^2}{12}+, \&c.$

which quantity represents the difference between fx and what fx becomes when x is increased to $x+h$. Let the first term of this difference be called the differential, and be denoted by the expression dfx; hence we have $dfx=f'xh$ $\therefore f'x=\frac{dfx}{h}$. Hence to have $f'x$, divide the difference between two successive values of

of fx by the increment: but, since $f'x$ is independent of h, h must disappear by this division, and may be represented by any symbol at pleasure. Hence, for the sake of uniformity in the signs, let h be represented by dx $\therefore$ $f'x = \frac{dfx}{dx}$. Hence to find dfx, or the differential of fx, write in fx, $x+dx$, for x, develope $f(x+dx)$ as far as the terms affected with the first power of dx, and subtract fx.—

Since $f(x+dx)-fx = f'xdx+$, &c.

$f'(x+dx)-f'x = f''xdx+$, &c.

&c. = &c.

$f'xdx = dfx$, $f''xdx = df'x$

therefore $f''x = \frac{df'x}{dx} = \frac{d\left(\frac{dfx}{dx}\right)}{dx}$.

But since dx is invariable,

$f'(x+dx)\,dx - f'xdx = f''xdx^2$

hence $df'xdx = f''xdx^2$

but $df'xdx = ddfx = d^2fx$ (d^2 not meaning a symbol d squared, but denoting the second differential of fx to be taken): hence it appears, since $f''x = \frac{d\left(\frac{dfx}{dx}\right)}{dx}$ and $= \frac{d^2fx}{dx^2}$; that $\frac{d\left(\frac{dfx}{dx}\right)}{dx} = \frac{d^2fx}{dx^2}$; and thus the derived functions $f'x$, $f''x$, $f'''x$, &c. may be represented by the quantities $\frac{dfx}{dx}$, $\frac{d^2fx}{dx^2}$, $\frac{d^3fx}{dx^3}$, &c. *

so that the developement of $f(x+h)$ takes this form,

$$fx + \frac{dfx}{dx}h + \frac{d^2fx}{1.2.dx^2}h^2 +, \text{ \&c.}$$

the celebrated theorem of Taylor.

M. La Croix next proceeds to demonstrate the known forms for the differentials of rectangles, fractions, hyperbolic logarithms, circular arcs, &c. He also deduces the differentials of equations, and of a function of two variable quantites, as $f(x.y)$; and his methods, although they want the neatness and brevity which are displayed in those of M. *La Grange*, yet do not essentially differ from them.

The latter part of the first chapter is occupied in shewing the affinity of the method of differential coefficients, to that of the limits of ratios which the increments of variable quantities have to each. The affinity is thus shewn: Let u be a func-

* The expressions dx, d^2x, d^3x, dx^2, dx^3, &c. in the English notation are equivalent to $\dot{x}$, $\ddot{x}$, $\dddot{x}$, $\dot{x}^2$, $\dot{x}^3$, &c.

tion of x: when x becomes $x+h$, u becomes $u+ph+qh^2+rh^3+$, &c. p, q, r, &c. being derived from u, and independent of h.

Let $k=ph+qh^2+$', &c.—then $\frac{k}{h}=p+qh+rh^2+$, &c.

Let $h=o$; then $\frac{k}{h}=p$, or the limit of $\frac{k}{h}$ is p, the first differential coefficient derived from u: In like manner, considering p as a new function, when x becomes $x+h$, p becomes $p+p'h+q'h^2$, &c. &c.

Hence $\frac{k'}{h}=p'+q'h,+$&c.

When $h=o$, limit of $\frac{k'}{h}$ is p', and so on.

Chapter II. is on *the principal analytical Uses to which the differential Calculus is applied.*—These uses are the conversion of multinomials, raised to any power, into series ascending to the powers of the unknown quantities; the expression of the logarithm of quantities, and the arcs of circles, by infinite series in terms of sine, cosine, tangent, &c; the determination of the values of fractions, when the numerators and denominators vanish; the methods of ascertaining the maxima and minima of quantities, &c.

To these uses, it is well known, the differential calculus has long been applied. The application is of no great difficulty, and the method followed by M. La Croix does not materially differ from the methods pointed out in former treatises. We pass on, therefore, to

Chapter III. which is called a *Digression on Algebraic Equations.*—The problems first solved by M. La Croix are the assigning the sum of the mth powers of the roots of an equation, the sum of quantities of this form, $\alpha^m\beta^n\gamma^r$, &c.$+\alpha^n\beta^m\gamma^r$, &c. α, β, γ, being the roots of an algebraic equation: these two problems are those which were solved by *Waring* in the beginning of his *Meditationes Algebraicæ.*

The author next goes on to shew the possibility of decomposing, into real factors of second degree, any equation of an even degree. He proves that every equation of a degree p will have a real factor of second degree, if every equation of the degree $\frac{p\cdot(p-1)}{2}$ has a real factor, whether of 1st or 2d degree; $-x^m\pm a^m=o$ is resolved into its factors.

In detecting the number of impossible roots of an equation, he employs a rule of M. *La Grange*, which is the same as the rule given by Waring in page 82 of his *Meditationes.*

In

In speaking of the controversy between *Leibnitz*, *Bernouilli*, *Euler*, and *D'Alembert*, concerning the logarithm of negative quantities, M. La Croix inclines to the opinion of *Euler*.

Chap. IV. treats *on Curve Lines*:—but we must now suspend the farther consideration of this work till a future opportunity.

[*To be continued.*] R. Wood.

Art. VI. M. Millin's *National Antiquities of France*, Vol. V.

After long delay and much diligent inquiry, we are at length able to lay before our readers some account of another part of this publication. We must refer them to Vol. X. of our New Series, p. 545, for the preceding volume; and they will there see that we bestowed considerable commendation on the performance, which we have no reason for recalling on a perusal of the pages before us. The author is not a common-place retailer of objects which fall under every person's notice, nor indeed a mere describer of those which are more neglected, or concealed from general attention: but he appears to be a scientific *describer*, disposed to entertain, and qualified to improve the reader.

Were we to enter into a minute account of the contents of this work, we should transgress those boundaries which justice and necessity impose: we shall therefore only offer a general view, with remarks on two or three of the subjects which present themselves. The articles in this volume are not numerous; because some of them are replete with topics which demand particular attention, and are therefore extended to greater length than others. Their distinct titles are as follow: *Collegiate Church of St. Nicholas at Amiens; Carthusian Monastery of Paris; Antient Palace of Lisle; Collegiate Church of St. Peter, Lisle; Hôpital Comptesse at Lisle; Dominicans at Lisle; Recollects at Lisle; Castle; de Comines; Saint Landry, Paris; Abbey of St. Geneviève, Paris; Library of St. Peter, Lisle.*

The *Chartreuse de Paris*, or the Carthusian Monastery, makes a distinguished figure; its domain was extensive, its buildings were large and various, its different departments and ornaments were curious, and often well executed, and it is besides connected with history and events which cannot fail to interest an exact and intelligent examiner. In one part, we remark an inscription dictated, as the author properly expresses it, by fanaticism and adulation, congratulating Lewis XIII on his *triumphant entry* on the extermination of heretics at Rochelle: that murderous exploit was honored by the monks with the erection of a triumphal arch for the sanguinary monarch.—In another part, we observe the tomb of Hugh, or in the catholic

style, St. Hugues, an early and zealous Carthusian, invited by Henry II. to England; where, as Bishop of Lincoln, he was distinguished during that reign, and those of Richard and John. He died in the year 1200; and his funeral was pompous, it is said, beyond any thing that England had seen; besides multitudes of other ranks, barons and kings assisted at the interment at Lincoln; and several years afterward, the body, found entire, was removed and deposited with the utmost magnificence in the monastery in France.—In connection with this country, we may take notice of another saint, Saint-Hervé; whose father, a native of England, came very young to the court of France. *Herwey* was born blind; yet, under this impediment, he made considerable proficiency in the sort of knowlege which marked his time, and (as it is said) wrought several miracles, two or three of which, rather of a humourous and diverting kind, are here related; sufficient to discover the base assurance of those who could forge and impose these legendary tales, and the simplicity or sottishness of those who could bestow on them any regard.

In one of the numerous chapels belonging to this edifice, an altar appears, with this inscription; *Autel Privilégié.* Several of our readers probably know that these altars have been held in high estimation. We are sometimes carried back, for their origin, to the year 820; while others bring it down so low as the council of Trent, or about the year 1563, when a brief for the purpose was obtained from Pope Gregory XIII, and these *privileged altars* no doubt proved a source of *rich* consolation. The regular monks, as well as the mendicants, readily adopted the practice, and even added to the golden inscription, *here by every mass a soul is released from purgatory.* Some are said to have promoted the delusion so far as, by means of artificial sparks or flames, during the impious service, to persuade the people that the released soul then flew into paradise. A monk, it is related, passing through an usual examination, being interrogated concerning his opinion of privileged altars, replied, "I think them very productive;" or that "they yield *great profit*," *(sont d'un grand produit).* One jesuit amused the people with an ingenious, and to himself, no doubt, a lucrative conceit, when he persuaded them that he was himself an *autel privilégié*; that is, that he imparted benefits of the same kind to any and every altar at which he officiated.

In one of the cloisters, are twenty-two paintings, which we are informed have attracted the attention and admiration of artists throughout Europe; and which were executed in the year 1648, by the celebrated *Lesueur*, mentioned as holding the first rank in the French school for painting. They are on wood,

wood, and placed in handsome arcades opposite to the windows of painted glass. The subject is the life of Saint *Bruno*, the founder of the monastery, whose history had been painted twice before; once, in 1350, on the walls; and a second time, in 1510, on linen-cloth. These paintings are particularly described, with remarks on their beauties or defects. Each of these pictures was accompanied with lines of poetry.—At the commencement of the revolution, some care was adopted for their removal: but, unfortunately, the *intendant*, or overseer of buildings, began to take them down before a place was provided for their reception; and they were hurried into granaries, where they have perished, with many others of the superb gallery of Rubens.

This article is terminated by a brief notice of *Dom Felix Nonante*, the last prior of this house; who is said to have been equally eminent for virtue and for the love of letters: but nothing could escape the persecution, from internal or external causes, which has recently deluged France with blood; and he perished, says this writer, by the punishment at that time reserved for whatever was useful and meritorious.—In such terms, do those, who approved the principles of the first revolution in France, speak of the horrible consequences which art, fraud, and wickedness afterward effected.

The collegiate church of St. Peter at Lisle occupies a great number of pages; accompanied by a short account of the city, in which we particularly remark the use made of dogs for carriage and for draught. They are harnessed as horses are; and three of them draw a little loaded cart, of which a view is given in the print of the antient churches of St. Etienne and St. Peter. We are told that this practice has been introduced at Paris, since the failure of horses.—Numerous are the tombs and monuments here brought under review; all of which we must pass over, and proceed to the chapels. Cybele and Diana had not in antient times, says M. MILLIN, so many churches and chapels as are dedicated to *Mary*. The chapel of *Notre Dame* immediately followed the building of the church of St. Peter. The stone-statue of the virgin, sometimes exhibited in public procession, is surrounded by an ornamented and gilded lattice; on which account it is distinguished as *Notre Dame de-la Treille*; and we may imagine, remarks this writer, that *Notre Dame de la Treille* does not yield for the gift of miracles to all or any of the other *Notre Dames* in the world. It yields, however, in decoration and magnificence, to that which next occurs, *Notre Dame des sept douleurs*, (of the seven sorrows) raised at the expence of Philip the Good, who signalized his devotion by a representation of Mary, exerting herself to re-animate the body

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of Jesus. It was constructed, we are told, entirely of marble: but nothing so powerfully attracted attention as the magnificent monument which was placed in the middle, to the memory of Lewis de Masle, Count of Flanders, who died A. D. 1384: this tomb is particularly distinguished by a number of figures, in distinct arches on every side, representing twenty-three princes of the Flemish house; each on a small pedestal bearing the arms, name, and title, exactly and handsomely sculptured and festooned. The statues are distinctly noticed by M. MILLIN, according to the figures which are here engraved; of some we find little or nothing more than a description of the dress and ornaments, to which considerable attention is given as marking the manners or costume of different times. The third of these figures is *Jean sans peur* (John, without fear) son of the French king; who received this title on account of the intrepidity with which he appeared before *Bajazet* the Turk, when taken prisoner in one of the crusades. He is the man who assassinated the Duke of Orleans; and his military atchievements are said to have been such as defeated all the measures employed to avenge that atrocious crime. At the very time, however, when terms of reconciliation were just concluding between him and the court of France, and when the Dauphin in amity (as it seemed) held out his hand, he was murdered on the bridge of Montereau, A. D. 1417.—Charles, who is the fifth in this list, having been vanquished in a battle with the French and Swiss, had the mortification of seeing them plunder his most valuable treasures, and particularly that fine diamond which has since made a part of the jewels of the French crown, and been called *le régent*. This prince was surnamed the *hardy*, the *warrior*, the *terrible*, the *rash*; 'happy had he been, (says our author,) had he merited the surname of the *prudent*, the *sage*.'

Among the remarks here made on the habiliments of these figures, we find it observed that, 'about the year 1427, a Carmelite preached at Lisle, who exerted all his power of eloquence against the extravagant head-dress of the ladies; he delivered not fewer than seventeen sermons on the subject; and his oratory is said to have been so efficacious as to excite the young men to traverse the streets provided with hooks, to tear away this part of the female covering and cast it in the mire.'

The abbey of *St. Genevieve* at Paris constitutes a very large part of the volume. This young shepherdess, if indeed there was such a person, appears to have been born near Paris somewhere about the year 422, and to have died in that city, A. D. 512. If we might credit legendary lore, she early devoted herself

herself, her crook, and her distaff, to the service of religion; and laid the foundation of a building which proved, in a course of years, a monastery famed for grandeur and riches, and in some instances for useful learning, as well as for superstition, fraud, and tyranny.—The church seems at first to have been known by the name of St. Peter and Paul, and it was not until about the year 1148, that the whole edifice was distinguished by that of Genevieve.—Within the walls of the church, rest the remains of that great man, *R. Descartes*, to whose memory a handsome monument was erected several years after his decease. To the learned world he is well known; and, however he might be mistaken in some of his researches and conclusions, he was a philosopher of extensive ability. The boldness of his system drew on him a multitude of enemies; whose persecutions (as this writer remarks) gave him a distaste to his ungrateful country, and engaged him readily to yield to a pressing invitation from Christina, queen of Sweden. 'Disgraceful it was (says M. MILLIN) to his contemporaries, to have surrendered to a foreign princess the honour of remunerating talents so distinguished.' He died at Stockholm, A. D. 1650, at the age of fifty-three, and was interred, according to the ceremonial of the Romish church, in the burial-ground allotted for strangers. It is rather remarkable that the learned though fanciful queen should not have provided handsomely to defray the funeral-charges: but we are here told that the interment was very plain, and at the expence of the family,—as we conclude is intended by the words, *de sa succession.* Seventeen years afterward, his remains, at the solicitation of his friend M. *Dalibert*, treasurer of the kingdom, were transported to France, and with great magnificence were deposited in the church of St. Genevieve. The Chancellor of the University, *P. Lallemant*, had prepared an oration for the occasion, which an order from the court forbad him to pronounce.—Near him lies *J. Rohault*, one of the most zealous and most skilful of his disciples, who has also a handsome monument erected to his memory.

The shrine of *Genevieve* will doubtless engage the attention of many readers. The bones of the saint (or of some other persons) are inclosed in a coffer, in form somewhat like a church, most richly and expensively decorated, and placed on the high altar, whence it was not removed but on extraordinary occasions, or on a great public calamity; and then, with amazing parade, it has sometimes been exhibited in a grand procession.—In the year 1161, a report was spread through the city, that the *head* of the patroness of Paris had been carried off; and the king, equally alarmed apparently with the crowd, gave immediate

diate direction that the archbishop *de Sens*, with two other bishops, should open and examine the coffer: this was accordingly done, and the agitated populace were tranquillized on the assurance that the *head*, together with the rest of the body, was safe and sound.

It might be expected that, among the monuments, would be seen the tomb of king Clovis, in whose time Genevieve lived, and by whom she was greatly favoured and honoured: but a slight inspection proves that the monument, asserted to be his, is of far more modern date; an erection of Cardinal *Rochefoucault*, who died in the year 1645. *Rochefoucault* effected a consid rable reform in the house, and afforded some reason for applying to him what had been said of Augustus relative to the city of Rome, *Invenit lateritiam, reliquit marmoream* *.—*Pierre Fourrier*, a prior of this monastery, (as we conclude,) in the seventeenth century, seems to have been principally remarkable for contests with the devils who came to invade his territories: one of these troublesome spirits being asked, on a particular occasion, where he had been for two or three days, during which he had given no answer to the exorcist, replied 'that he had been to the city of Lorraine to take vengeance on a priest, who had persecuted his fraternity, by rousing against them all the men and women of every age and condition, so as to cause him great labour and difficulty.'

The library of this monastery forms the last article in the volume: some account had been given of it in the preceding number, where the building was described, and we were told of the assistance which it received from Cardinal *Rochefoucault*; since whose time, the books have gradually increased to the number of seventy or eighty thousand volumes. This library appears to be at present protected with great assiduity. The chapter, which professes to give a distinct account of it, furnishes chiefly the transcript of a manuscript there found, which relates the solemn entry of Philip and Isabel into Lisle in the year 1600. It is long, and accompanied by several prints. This celebrated entry resembles very much, although it appears more pompous, some antient royal processions in our own country.

We have perused with pleasure this additional volume, in which the author is generally temperate and moderate in his reflections on fanaticism and priestcraft: though in some instances he seems to relate pretended miracles as if he believed them, it is clear that he does not. His remarks and criticisms on different subjects of art, on language, words, &c. are well worthy of notice; his descriptions and historic relations will certainly be acceptable; and the numerous engravings will

* He found it of brick, he left it of marble.

prove

prove very entertaining: several of them are, in point of perspective, among the best that we remember to have seen in productions of the French press. Hi.

ART. VII. *Paris pendant les Années* 1799 & 1800: Paris during the Years 1799 & 1800. By M. PELTIER.

IN our last Appendix, we terminated our account of this agreeable work with only the XXIId vol. at No. LXXXIV. and now three vols. more, of 5 Numbers each, have appeared. We can therefore mention only a few particulars. The XXIIId vol. begins with No. LXXXV, published July 31st; prefixed to which we find an advertisement from the editor, complaining of the difficulty, or rather impossibility, of obtaining genuine information of the state of France, from the 4th of December 1797, to June the 18th 1799; not only from the restraints of the press, but from the total embargo for some time laid on every species of news-papers, to prevent them from reaching England. About this time (June), however, there was an appearance seemingly favourable to the liberty of the press, for which several champions appeared in the Senate; and the editor hoped that his political articles in future would become more interesting.

Among the poetical articles of this number, Messrs. *Le Segur* have contributed, together with *Maubert*, *Dupaty*, and others, some lively and ingenious pieces. These are followed by calm and rational reflections on a pamphlet written by *Boulay de la Meurthe*, intitled: "Essay on the causes which occasioned the Revolution of 1649 in England, and the Establishment of a Republic:" from which, extracts were given by M. PELTIER in his LXXXIIId number. An answer to this pamphlet, by *Benj. Constant*, of Geneva, is announced.

The next article is an account of the Expedition to Egypt, with a description of numerous antiquities of that country, ornamented with figures, by *Charles Norry*, Member of the Philotechnic Society, and one of the Architects in the Egyptian Expedition: a small work, but amusing and instructive, as far as it goes.

No. LXXXVI. *Literary Miscellanies.*—The *Si*, or the *If*, by a young poet of the renowned name of *Depriaux*:—in which he tells us whom he would be in learning, science, and talents, if he were allowed to change his acquirements: but, self-complaisant, he finishes, like a true Frenchman, (and perhaps, like a true mortal in any country,) by owning that, if he were any other human being on earth, he should always wish to be his *present self*.

Dialogues

Dialogues between a natural head of hair and a peruke.—

The *Tree of Cracovia*.—Political discussion between two disputants: one of whom believes every thing, the other nothing.

No. LXXXVII. The literary part of this number contains many interesting and curious articles. It begins with an account of an "Essay on Antient Fables, and their History;" a posthumous work of the late scientific and elegant writer, M. *Bailly*, 2 vols. 8vo. addressed to Madame *Dubocage*.

The analysis, extracts, and reflections relative to this publication, by M. PELTIER, compose an article of considerable length and importance. M. *Bailly* had peculiar ideas concerning the antiquity of the world, the origin of science, antient fables, mythology, and astronomy, at which he frequently glances in his correspondence with *Voltaire*, and in his *Atlantide*. The present work is a farther developement of these favourite ideas, written after the decease of *Voltaire*. We have not seen the performance itself: but M. PELTIER has furnished us with a perfect conception of its tenour and merit. The same ingenuity, close reasoning, and elegance of style occur in it, which distinguished the former scientific and philosophic productions of this excellent writer, but ill-fated politician.

Discovery of the Maritime Arsenal of the Lacedemonians; extracted from a Memoir of M. *Jumelin*, read at the National Institute.—MS. Negotiation between the K. of Prussia (Frederic) and *Voltaire*. This extract from the life of *Voltaire*, written by himself, will strengthen the general belief that Frenchmen, of whatever rank or profession, seldom correspond with or visit foreign countries without employing their thoughts, or being employed, in politics.

Poetry.—History of a great Lady, written by herself, in stanzas. This great personage is no other than My *Lady Republic*; who is not much flattered, though her own biographer. *Ode on the Dangers of the country*, by *Le Brun*: written during the antient monarchy, but applied to the present state of France. *Stanzas to Parthenissa*, by *Racine*, never published in any edition of his works. *Epistle to Fools*, by no common stringer of rhymes;—&c. &c.

Dramatic Representations. Ballad-Theatre. A sketch of the life of *Monet* the founder of that theatre, under the more appropriate title of *Comic Opera*. He is now made the hero of a little drama. It was *Monet* who brought over to England the French dancers, which occasioned such riots at Drury-lane, and such loss to Garrick the patentee.

Gilles the Aëronaut, or America at no great distance: a comedy in one act.—This piece was represented on the day before

before that on which *Blanchard* had promised to set off with M. *la Lande*, the astronomer, in a fleet of balloons for America. It does not appear that this voyage took place, nor that the farce which ridiculed the plan had much success.—*A Lover's Arbitration*, a comedy in one act, by the younger *Segur*, seems to have been well received at the city theatre.

Account of the death of the celebrated Canon *Pauw*, (author of Inquiries concerning the Americans, Egyptians, and Greeks,) at Xanto, near Aix la Chapelle, aged 60. Account of curiosities in the fine arts, lately arrived at Paris from Italy; among the rest, the Pope's grand and inestimable collection of medals, &c. &c.

New Books.—Memoirs of *Mademoiselle Dumesnil*, the Actress, in answer to the Memoirs of *Mademoiselle Clairon:* with a Letter by the celebrated Actor *Lekain*, together with several curious Anecdotes relative to the French Theatre. 1 Vol. 8vo. 'This work is said to be very *piquant*. The author discusses in it, very minutely, the *Mem. de Clairon*, and points out the errors, without omitting to do justice to the prodigious talents of that actress. The criticism abounds with taste, learning, grace, vivacity, and refined pleasantry.'

Verses "*on the Immortality of the Soul;*" written by the Abbé *Delille*, during his imprisonment by *Roberspierre*, in 1794, just before the fall of that tyrant; who had graciously condescended to allow the world permission to believe that there was a God. The terrible *Committee of Public Safety* required from the poet his opinion on the subject of the soul's immortality. If he had refused to comply with their requisition, the guillotine was then permanent, and would certainly have rendered him "shorter by the head;" and if he had complied, in the sense of the rulers of France at that time, he would have levelled himself with the *Cheniers*, *Le Bruns*, and *Desorgues*, who were denouncing all religious principles as superstition, below the dignity of man. The Abbé, however, chose to risque the vengeance of the dreadful committee, rather than sacrifice his conscience; and, uniting true courage with the power of his talents, he gave such a lesson to the tyrants of France as would infallibly have cost him his life, had not the revolution of the 9th of Thermidor (27th July) soon afterward saved his head, and favoured his flight to Switzerland; where he remained concealed for a considerable time, and composed his *Georgiques Françoises*.

No. CLXXXVIII. *Literary Articles.—Lycæum, or Course of Lectures on Literature, antient and modern*, by M. *de la Harpe*. This important work, which was mentioned in our former account of M. PELTIER's journal, has now furnished him with

materials for an excellent article, consisting of more than 20 pages. We pass it over, however, in hopes of taking up the work *de novo*, when we are able to procure a copy.

On the Alexandrian Library, and its pretended Destruction by the Saracens, under the Califf Omar.—No historical fact, nor any individual character, however long and well established, is allowed to remain in quiet during these sceptical times. Infidelity, after having shaken religious opinions of all kinds, attacks historical credibility with equal fury. The articles of our poetical creed have been assaulted by Mr. *Bryant*; the Parian Marbles, by Mr. *Robertson*; and now we are told by *Herr Reinhard*, a German, that we are not only to disbelieve the destruction of the Alexandrian library by the Arabian Mahometans, but that there ever was, in the time of the Saracens, a library at Alexandria to destroy. If one did exist, after the time of Mahomet, we are given to understand that it was the Christians who performed the destructive act.—In a few centuries, our descendants will probably be told by some ingenious critic, that there was no rebellion in our country during the xviith century; and that Charles the First, *if he ever existed*, died in his bed.—We shall not attempt to interfere farther with this controversy: but the burning of the Alexandrian library has been so often described, believed, and lamented, by persons of the highest literary eminence and caution, that neither the doubts nor the assertions of two or three individuals will shake our faith.

Poetry.—Letter concerning the Abbé *Delille*. The enthusiasm with which M. PELTIER speaks of this admirable poet does him honour, and is not to be set down to the account of that national partiality of which the French are frequently accused. The steady loyalty, piety, and morality, of this writer, during the present times, are as extraordinary as his poetical abilities. In the present letter, several happy traits are given from the Abbé's exquisite poem on *Imagination*; which has never been printed, and a great part of it never yet perhaps committed to paper. The Abbé's eyes being very feeble, he never reads his verses, but repeats them from memory; to the astonishment of all those to whom nature has been parsimonious in her gift of this faculty.

No. CLXXXIX. contains various amusing and interesting articles, but nothing which particularly excites our attention.

Vol. XXIV. No. CXC. This volume begins with a second article on the Lycæum Lectures of M. *De la Harpe*, apparently drawn up with as much care, candour, and reflection, as the former; in which the work was brought by M. PELTIER to the lecturer's examination of the literary productions of the best

best ages of Greece and Rome; and we have now a sketch of the history and state of letters from the time of Augustus to subsequent periods, which *Voltaire* has denominated the Age of Leo Xth and Louis XIVth.

Various poetical, literary, and political articles occur in this number.

No. CXCI. *De la Harpe*'s Course of Lectures, third and last extract, treating of orators, historians, and moralists. M. PELTIER concludes his examination of this work with the following warm and spirited eulogy:

'We had already *a course of belles lettres*, and *elements of literature*, works much esteemed for the instruction as well as amusement which they contained:—but we may venture to affirm, that the course of *lectures on antient and modern literature*, of which we have only given a very slight sketch, is indisputably the most complete analysis of every species of literature, its progress, perfection, and the authors, that our nation (France) can boast. It is a classical work, in which genius is assigned its true place, talents are fairly appreciated, and in which the criticisms are as just as the praise, and the decisions as well founded as the principles. It is written with purity, elegance, and force; and the sentiments of the author are noble, elevated, and independant of circumstances. It discovers in the Lycæum-professor such a knowlege of the works of antient and modern authors, such an immense and well-digested erudition, that it ought to be the compass and steerage of our young candidates for literary fame: as it is a code of taste, and the most useful monument which has been erected to the glory of letters.'

The *Poetry* of this number consists of farewell pieces, produced at the last dinner of the Ballad Club; which is dissolved, after having continued three years, and having given birth to more than 400 songs.

No. CXCII. *Literary Articles.*—After the dissolution of the *Ballad-Club*, (which was a dinner-meeting) another society, to be held once in a month, was instituted by some of the same individuals, under the name of the *Ballad-Singer's Supper*. Previously to speaking of this society, M. PELTIER has inserted a little ballad-opera, or farce, the result of six of the members of the new club dining together. Its title is M. de *Bievre*, or the abuse of wit; and it consists of a string of *calembourgs* or puns, which have lately been much *à-la-mode* at Paris, as well as in other national theatres. It occupies more than 30 pages of this number, in which the abuse of wit seems not to be its abundance, but paucity.

No. CXCIII. is chiefly political.

No. CXCIV. *Poetry.—End of the* xviii*th Century*, a Satire.—There could be little doubt that this Philippic, which has already gone through several editions, would be much read,

from the number of well-known characters and personalities which it contains. Among the rest, Citizen *La Lande* is not forgotten:

'Behold, *La Lande!* bold Titan of our time,
Who heav'n attacks, and all its host sublime.
A pedant vain, whom his own feats surprise,
Who genius deems what memory supplies:
The world fatigues with labours in the clouds,
With stars he ne'er has seen he journals crowds;
With envy bursting at the fame and gain
Which almanacs procure, foretelling rain *.'

At the theatres, some new political, pantomimical, and operatical pieces have been well received.

Vol. xxv. No. cxcv.—This number begins the new year, with a dissertation on the æra at present in dispute: "on the year 1800, and the period of 3600 years." The editor regards the dispute as terminated, between the 18th and 19th centuries; and that the secular year, 1800, has gained the cause.

We have next a very favourable and interesting account of two successful dramas, brought on the stage at Paris about the close of the year 1799: a comedy and a tragedy. The first is a posthumous work, entitled *The Preceptors*, written by the late *Fabre d'Eglantine*. In this play, the pupils remind us of Fielding's Tom Jones and Blyfil; and in the Preceptors we perceive many features of Thwackum and Square, though disguised by French manners and ways of thinking.

The tragedy, written by *Legouvé*, has for title *Etiocles* and *Polinices*. The author, we are told, though still young, had previously produced three successful dramas: *the Death of Abel*, *Epicharis*, and *Quintus Fabius*. The subject which he has now chosen is that of the *Thebais*, treated in Greek under different names, by Eschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides; in Latin by Seneca; in Italian by Ludovico Dolce; in French by Boyer, Rotrou, and Racine; and in English by Newton in 1581, under the title of the *Thebais*; in 1631 by Thomas May, under that of *Antigone* the Theban princess; in 1729 by George Adams, from Sophocles, under the same title of *Antigone*; and in 1777 Mr.

* The news-papers are full of his astronomical predictions: he foretells heat, cold, and the return of the seasons. See a little work of which he is the hero, and which has had the greatest success, entitled "a New-year's Gift from the National Institute, or a Literary Review for the 7th Year of the Republic."

In his correspondence with the *Academie de Berlin*, 1782, he says "you may be sure that my Tables are better than those of Halley." p. 38.—"The corrections which M. *Lambert* has made to them are quackery."—"Make my complaints to M. *Bode* for not having preserved, in his new Atlas of Flamsted, my constellation of Messier."

Potter enriched our literature, though not the stage, with his translation of *The Seven Chiefs against Thebes*, from Eschylus. From M. PELTIER's account of the new structure on the antient foundation, it appears that M. *Legouvé* has not only availed himself of the admirable simplicity of Euripides in his *Phœnicians*, and of the beauties of all the translations and imitations of the Greek tragedians, but has added many of his own, in an elegant and pure style: in which, according to M. P., 'he is pompous without bombast; giving to his plan all the interest of which it is susceptible; to his characters, appropriate colouring; and to his dialogue that elevation and gradation of effect, which the progress of the action required.'

A farce, or little comedy, interspersed with songs, at the Vaudeville or ballad-theatre, written by a junto of wits, has been very successful; and by the sentiment of a municipal officer, who was ordered closely to imprison some ladies who had been seized as hostages, and made responsible for their distant relations, we should suppose that chivalry still subsisted, or was reviving in France.

'In pain and anguish when we sigh,
To whom but females can we fly?
Their care and kindness make us whole,
Suspend our smart and calm the soul.
While ev'ry ill mankind surrounds
With which the universe abounds,
Can we distress and load with woes
The sources whence our comfort flows?

'To imprison knaves of ev'ry kind
Me ever ready you shall find;
For justice and the public's sake
My home I would a dungeon make:
But beings gentle, kind, and fair,
To treat with rigour, who shall dare?
'Ere lock up these, I'd spurn all pelf—
Unless I with them lock'd myself.'

Oriental MSS. brought from Egypt by Bonaparte. These MSS., three in number, seem to be of little worth. Two of them are in the Persian language, and the third in the Turkish. The title of this last is *Oriental Happiness and the Source of Sovereignty, in the Science of Talismans.* One of the Persian MSS. is a collection of five works by the celebrated Persian poet Abdec-Rahhman-el Djammy:—but we are not told on what subjects these works are written. The other Persian MS. is entitled, *The Conversation of Lovers.* All the praise bestowed on this MS. is, that it has been transcribed on rose paper by an excellent penman.

In the obituary of this number, is announced the decease of five persons whose loss will be long lamented throughout Europe: *Marmontel*, *Montucla*, *Préville*, *Le Mounier*, and *Daubenton*.

No. CXCVI. *Fragment of a Latin Poem on the French Revolution.* This poem, and almost every article of this number, are levelled at Bonaparte's usurpation, and his flight from Egypt. The intercepted letters from *Kleber*, *Poussielgue*, *Dugua*, and *Bonaparte* himself, form a considerable part of the number; which is terminated by the second proposal of the French Government to open a negociation for peace; with *Talleyrand*'s letter to Lord Grenville, and his Lordship's answer.

No. CXCVII. *Intéret*, a Poem by *Vigée*. The radical vice of self-interest, which can assume such innumerable shapes, has been attacked in all by moralists and satirists, both in prose and verse, to little purpose. It is implanted in every animal, but disguised by none so artfully as by man. It is subdued sometimes by education and a good heart, but is resolved by others into the first law of nature: self-defence. In this poem, we have a string of well-known facts—*cases* for moral doctors to pour in cathartics, or apply caustics: but we fear that the distemper is incurable, at least by the poetical *incantations* of Dr. *Vigée*.

Farther Remarks on the Alexandrian Library; which, though we are not allowed to believe that it was *burned* down, we plainly perceive is to be *written* down.

Anecdotes of the celebrated Comedian Préville, lately deceased.

No. CXCVIII. This number contains much interesting matter; and there are several articles on which we should wish to dwell, had we room and leisure: but, in order to overtake the editor, with whom we have been so long in arrears, we must necessarily proceed with great brevity.

The first article in this number is a *fragment of a poem.* —*Time* acquaints *Homer*, in a dream, what great men will do him homage, and what poets endeavour to follow his steps. It is a wild rhapsody, and very properly styled a *dream*, of which it has all the incoherence: the author jumping from antient to modern, and from modern to antient times, with visionary rapidity. We should dispute some of his opinions, if he were awake.

A new piece at one of the theatres, entitled the *Beneficent Judge*, has been well received. We have part of a long and laboured examination of the comedy of the *Preceptors*; and an inedited letter from *Diderot* to *Voltaire* on his tragedy of *Tancrede*, and *Voltaire*'s answer.—*Literary Anecdotes*: none of which are sufficiently striking to be remembered, except

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the fashion in France for extending *transportation* from the living to the dead: as we are told that citizen *Le Noir*, keeper of the Museum, has obtained permission to *transport* thither the tombs of *Abelard* and *Eloisa!*

No. CXCIX. War of the Demi-gods; a burlesque poem, in 6 cantos. This satire seems to have been written (text and notes) in imitation, *pede claudo*, of the Pursuits of Literature. As we are unacquainted with many of the heroes of this Dunciad, we know not with what justice they have been treated by the anonymous author.

Polities. On this division of the work, we have chosen to be silent; and we must now suspend our attention to M. PELTIER's labours, having arrived at the end of the xxvth volume.

Dr. B....y.

ART. VIII. *Voyage Historique, Littéraire, &c. i. e.* Historical, Literary, and Picturesque Travels in the Islands and *ci-devant* Possessions of the Venetian State in the Levant; namely, *Corfu, Paxo, Bucintro, Parga, Prevesa, Vonizza, St. Maure, Thiaqui, Cephalonia, Zante, Strophades, Cerigo,* and *Ceregotta.* By ANDREW-GRASSET SAINT-SAUVEUR, jun. Consul of France, Resident at Corfu, Zante, &c. from the Year 1781 to the 6th Year of the French Republic. 3 Vols. 8vo. and 4to. Atlas. Paris, 1799. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. sewed.

So few remains of antient splendor and high cultivation are now to be found in the islands to which these volumes relate, after having been so often pillaged and in the possession of new masters, that they are become of little value to taste and learning: but they afford an opportunity for pedants to shew their reading, in discovering how often they have been mentioned incidentally by antient authors. Their importance is now almost wholly confined to commerce, and to those powers who have ambitious designs on them. For all other purposes, the work before us is too dry and minute to be amusing; and the places described are scarcely of importance sufficient to excite a wish for instruction concerning their present government, police, cultivation, and degraded state.

It might have been of consequence to France, who had seized, and intended to keep possession of these islands, to know what taxes, requisitions, forced-loans, and conscriptions, the inhabitants could bear: but for unambitious and idle readers, who only seek amusement and topographical knowlege, few œconomical and political details will suffice.

The author, in his preliminary discourse, complains of the scarcity of materials for the illustration of the antient state of these islands.

'Their antiquities have long been insensibly exhausted by the curious, who have enriched their mansions and cabinets with the precious spoils of these countries. A few memoirs have indeed been composed concerning them by persons of erudition: but, unluckily, they have been concealed from the public, with the antiquities which they explain.—Working on the spot, however, with the assistance of antient authors, and such publications of modern writers relative to these islands as I could procure, I did not despair of accomplishing my design.

'The first modern book which I found to answer my purpose, was a history of the island of *Corfu* in Italian, published at Venice 1672, under the title of, *Istoria di Corfu, descritta da Andrea Marmora, nobile Corcirense.* The Gothic style and ridiculous reflections of this work did not discourage me; I perused it several times with great attention; and it is from this publication that I took most of the medals, and Greek and Roman inscriptions, which I have inserted in my work.

'The second literary assistance which I obtained was a tract of Cardinal *Quirini*, intitled: *Primordia Corcirae;* which only treats of the antiquities of the island of *Corfu.* His labours, however, and his profound erudition, were of great use to me.

'The third writing, which I procured in MS. with great difficulty, has for title: *Corsi di Penna e Catena di Materie Sopra l'Isola di Cefalonia*, by *Andrea Morosini*, a Venetian nobleman, written in 1628.

'The fourth work is by *Balthazar Maria Remondi*, Bishop of Zante and Cephalonia, 1756; written in Latin, and entitled: *De Zacynthi Antiquitatibus et Fortuna Commentarius.*'

To fill up this wide chasm in the antient history of these islands, the author has given long extracts from the history of other countries, wholly unconnected with the present subject.

After the preliminary discourse, Book I. contains the natural history of the island of *Corfu;* which, after the loss of *Cyprus*, *Candia*, and the *Morea*, became the principal naval establishment of the Venetian marine in the Levant.—II. Treats of the political state of the island of *Corfu*, under the antient Greeks. This book is divided into nineteen chapters, all compiled from slight materials and gleanings of antient history.—III. Political state of this island under the Romans, thirteen chapters.—IV. Ditto under the Grecian empire.—V. Under the Kings of Naples.—VI. Under the Venetians. This seems to be the most interesting book, and composed of the most authentic materials.—Book VII. Vol. II. Contains the state of the island of *Corfu* under the Venetians, from the last siege by the Turks, to the taking possession of the island by the French; fifteen chapters.—VIII. Physical and political state of the islands of *Paxo*, *Bucintro*, and *Parga*, dependant on *Corfu.*—IX. Physical and political state of *Privesa*, *Vonizza*, and

and *St. Maure.*—Book X. Vol. III. Physical and political state of the islands of *Thiaqui* and *Cephalonia.*—XI. Physical and political state of the islands of *Zante* and the *Strophades;* twelve chapters.—XII. and last, contains the physical and political state of *Cerigo* and the Rock *Ceregotta.*

The table of contents only of the first volume, which (together with nearly the whole of vol. ii.) is entirely confined to the island of *Corfu*, would extend our article to too great a length. We shall, however, give the contents of the first two chapters of the first book, as specimens of the author's arrangement of his materials, and of his minute descriptions in the rest of the work.

The first chapter, under the title of 'The Natural History of *Corfu*,' treats of the situation, extent, canal, small islands, rocks, anchorage, winds, climate, rivers, marble quarries, coal-pits, mines of sulphur, mineral waters, earthquakes, productions, wood, hunting, fishing, coral, animals, fruits, vegetables, and population.

The second chapter contains a description of the city of *Corfu*, its fortresses, residence of the purveyor or superintendant of provisions for the fortress, statue of Count Schulenbourg, armory, barracks of the Sclavonian and Italian troops, residence of the purveyor-general, apartments of the officers of administration, magazines, port of the galleys, force, powder magazines, dykes, prisons, cisterns, parades, ramparts, military hospital, new fortress, Roman catholic cathedral, convents, episcopal palace, road for shipping, small islands, synagogue.

In speaking of these islands under the antient Greeks, the author relates events and circumstances in the antient history which are so well known to every school-boy, that even common readers of the work must be surprized at their insertion; and when under the Venetians, the islands were inhabited, cultivated, and governed, in so similar a manner, that they afforded little variety of description.

The island of ZANTE (*olim Zacynthus*), which occupies a considerable part of the third volume, seems to afford the most amusing articles. This, like the other Greek Islands, passed from the antient Greek republic to the Roman, from the Roman to the Greek empire, from that power to the Turks, and from the Turks to the Venetians. The inhabitants were converted to Christianity by St. Veronica. The established religion was that of the Greek church under the Venetians; though there is a nominal Roman catholic bishop, and with a cathedral: but few of the inhabitants are diocesans of that church; the generality being dependant on a Protopapa, suf-

ragan

ragan of the Archbishop of Cephalonia. For the antient state of this island, the author has given every scrap of intelligence to be found in the Greek poets and historians.

Few antiquities remain in this island that are of any value. A tomb, with two or three unknown names in Greek capitals, is indeed now and then discovered; and what the author says of the paucity of antiquities in *Cerigo*, (*Cytherea*,) will apply to all the rest of these islands: 'there remain here but few inconsiderable vestiges to illustrate its antient splendor: no inscription, and seldom a medal, of which the study might supply, in part at least, the want of annals.'

From his description of the customs and manners of the people of Zante under the Venetians, we might be led to think that the author had never been in Italy, nor read the journals of travellers through that country: since he mentions as new and extraordinary what is common and general, not only in Venice, but in every other Italian capital. The comedy which he describes, with Harlequin and Brighello, who speak the Bergamasque jargon; Pantaleone and his daughter Colombine, the Venetian; and Il Dottore the Bolognese; is wholly Italian:—as are the *Opore Buffe*, or comic operas, of which he speaks; and the horse-races in the streets, called *corsi*.

The author is not a lively narrator, nor does he often select for narration what is worthy to be related: but, in vol. ii. p. 41. we find a nuptial feast described, which, the author assures us, is such a ceremonial as is performed in the country, *à la Grec*, and not after the Italian manner, as in the city where Venetian customs prevail; we shall therefore present a part of it to our readers:

'These alliances are wholly arranged by the parents, on a principle of interest, in the way of bargain, without consulting the inclinations of the young persons, or even letting them see each other. When the agreement is made, the father of the female counts the dowry to the father of the intended bridegroom; and a few days afterward, accompanied by his relations, he makes his first visit to the lady; who, surrounded by her family, modestly receives his addresses. He presents her a jewel, and embraces her; and the sacred decree is irrevocably pronounced. This visit is followed by two others in the same ceremonial, and always accompanied by a new present. The spouses have each of them two parents, or friends, to give them away, and to bear testimony to the union; and they are present at all the visits, and sign the contract. These assistants are generally chosen among the most opulent friends of the young couple, and it is expected that they will make presents, and in future times patronize and assist them as relations, in any emergency.

'The ceremony is performed in the house of the bride. A table is prepared in the best room, on which the evangelists are placed between two wax-candles. On one side, on a saucer, are placed a glass,

glass, a small phial filled with wine, and a piece of bread; on another saucer, two crowns or coronets made of cotton, ornamented with rose-colour ribands. The parents, witnesses, and friends of the bride and bridegroom are ranged round the room; the bride in the centre close to her mother and nearest female relations. All the married women are placed on each side, according to their degree of affinity. The young maidens are in another room. As soon as the *papa*, or priest, arrives, he puts on his sacerdotal vestments before the assembly, and places himself at the table; distributing lighted tapers (having blessed them) to the young couple, and to the sponsors. The bridegroom then takes his spouse, and places himself with her behind the priest, each of them taking hold of his vestment; the witnesses following their example. The ceremony being ended according to the rites of the Greek church, the two tapers of the bride and bridegroom are formed into a crown interwoven together; and, the two ends being united, they are placed on the tester of the nuptial bed. The union of the flames is emblematical of the affection which ought ever to subsist between the married pair. The *papa* then retired, after having received testimonies of liberality from the married couple and their sponsors. In conformity to a sacred custom, the bride wept at the moment of union: whether from grief at quitting her parents, or from the joy which Hymen inspires; perhaps from both. The mother and relations likewise weep, and accompany their tears with praises and exhortations: this was not the most agreeable part of the festival. However, the whole village rang with acclamations; fire-works were played off; and demonstrations of joy of every kind were manifested by the inhabitants. The bride, between her mother and nearest relations, walked to the mansion of her husband, who came out to receive her. She was followed by a numerous train of women and peasants, and was preceded by a hautbois and drum, which accompanied the dances of two young persons, each holding the corner of a handkerchief. Arrived at length at the new residence, the bride is handed in by her spouse at the head of all his family;—and then, tears, compliments, and exhortations, were renewed.'

A chapter then follows, respecting funeral solemnities in Zante; which are extraordinary, and offensive to the common feelings of humanity in other countries.—The English, who have a Consul and a factory in this island, are allowed a cemetery in a very romantic and picturesque situation, to receive the remains of such of their countrymen as are prevented by death from returning home. It is a square piece of ground inclosed with a wall. A *papa*, or Grecian priest, has the care of it, who does duty in a small chapel dedicated to St. George; and all the English traders contribute by a tax to his subsistence.

From a passage in Athenæus (lib. iv.) the antient inhabitants of Zacynthus are supposed to have cultivated Music with great ardour; and it is an art which was always held in the highest estimation by the Greeks in general. Zacynthus

thus had its Orpheus; and we are told that the celebrated musician, Pythagoras the Zacynthian, who had rendered himself illustrious by his performance on the lyre, had invented a new instrument of a very peculiar construction. It resembled the Tripods consecrated in the temple of Delphos; it was fixed on a pivot; and the intervals between the feet were strung and wrought with as much taste as science. Pythagoras, placed on a seat made expressly for the purpose, pinched the strings with his left hand, while with his right he touched them with a plectrum (not a bow); making use of his feet in turning the instrument different ways, at his pleasure, and producing by turns melody from the three different modes, Dorian, Lydian, and Phrygian, to which the three sides were turned*. This curious invention died with its author, either from the difficulty of its construction, or from his neglecting to communicate the mysteries of his art to others. Aristoxenus †, in speaking of Agenor of Mytelene, who had produced many valuable musical works, thought that he could not exalt his character more than by comparing him to Pythagoras the Zacynthian.

The music of the present natives of this island seems to be somewhat degenerated. M. St. Sauveur, speaking of their parties of pleasure in the country, tells us that they were always terminated by a dance to the sound of a rude violin, and a lyre (certainly not that of Orpheus). Sometimes these two instruments are played in duo. The music then, as noisy as dissonant, corresponds exactly with the transports of the dancers; who are already exhilarated by the bounty of Bacchus: but if, unluckily, to this band be added a kind of coarse hautbois, and a side-drum, they sound a sudden retreat to all those who have ears well organized.

The island of Zante, in lat. 37° 53′, is 24 miles long, and 12 broad. Its population is from 40 to 50,000. It yields, among other fruits, the finest peaches in the world; some of which weigh eight to ten ounces:—but its chief produce for exportation consists in currants (*Raisins de Corinthe*), which abound, by cultivation, in all these islands. Cephalonia alone produces annually a prodigious quantity of this fruit.—It may be asked why this small species of grape should not be cultivated in our hot-houses, which may so easily be kept at the same temperature as the atmosphere of Cephalonia or Zante? As the larger vines are brought to a greater degree

* If we mistake not, we have a representation and description of this instrument in Dr. Burney's History of Music.

† Lib. ii.

of

of perfection for the table, by our stoves, than in any other part of Europe without artificial heat, it seems probable that, with similar assistance, we might rival the Greek islands in the quality, though not in the quantity of Corinthian grapes. They are pruned in March, preserving the strongest shoots, and destroying all that prey on the vine to no purpose.

Earthquakes are very common in all these islands, but in none more than in Zante. The direction of the shocks is from the N. W. to the S. E.; and they are generally preceded by a violent N. W. wind, which often continues for many days. No change in the atmosphere is observable. The shocks which have destroyed Lisbon, and have lately been so calamitous in Calabria, have been felt at the same hour in all these islands, but especially in Zante. The periods of these terrific times, and the destruction which they have occasioned, are recorded. —It has been remarked that there is a regular return of these calamities at the end of every twenty-five years; and that, in these intervals, no very violent commotion has happened. These calculations, and the dread which they occasion, appear to have been but too well founded.

'On the 2d of November 1790, (says the author,) at nine o'clock at night, while the wind almost insensible was to the S., the atmosphere inflamed, and extremely loaded with vapours, the air heavy, and oppressively hot, there happened at Zante one of the most dreadful shocks of an earthquake on record. It came on instantaneously in a vertical direction, but was followed by very quick undulations from the S. E. to the N. W. It lasted many minutes. This shock was not felt with equal violence all over the island; and its varieties, as astonishing as terrible, were marked by its effects. The western part of the island received no damage: but all the habitations built on eastern elevations, particularly the fortresses, were wholly destroyed, together with six villages situated at the foot of the mountains. There was not a house in the capital of the island which escaped being much damaged; and a great number were totally crushed. It was observed that those buildings, which had suffered most, were situated on the lowest ground, and were formed of the most solid materials and masonry; while others of two and three stories above the ground-floor, and lately built, received no damage. Square pilasters, supporting an advanced roof, have been seen turned on their axes. A wall four feet thick, and six in height, was turned topsy-turvy, and in a manner reduced to powder, near mortarless old walls in which not a stone was displaced. In many places on the sea-shore, the earth opened. During the eight or ten days subsequent to this shock, the sea was frightfully calm. The air continued equally heavy; and the thick vapours, with which the atmosphere was loaded, remained undissipated. The sun was very pale, and its heat was intolerable. People breathed with great difficulty, especially in the great square of the city, where the stench of sulphur was extremely strong. Every day produced many shocks, but

but happily they did not cause the dreadful effects which there was reason to fear, while all the foundations were shaken and the walls cracked by the first commotion. Twenty persons were killed and thirty wounded by the ruins; and terror caused the death of many sick people and pregnant women. The city of Zante presented a frightful spectacle: men, women, and children, quitting their houses, and running about in the utmost horror, they knew not whither.—The shocks continued more than six weeks, but with diminished force. I was obliged to pass my whole time in the open air; my house was extremely damaged; and I lost the greatest part of my furniture and effects. All the fruits of the island were destroyed; and it was with the utmost difficulty that necessaries were procured from the Morea, where the plague raged, and almost cut off all communication.'

It is proved, says M. ST. SAUVEUR, that the island of Cephalonia abounds with medicinal plants: one in particular, which has been found to be a specific for the gout. Of its efficacy, several cases are described, in which the remedy has proved infallible. The patients are named, and the case is authenticated: but we have neither the name of the plant, nor the manner of preparing or administering it. The mystery in which this remedy is enveloped throws suspicion on its virtues. A large premium and pension for life are required by the discoverer, before he will disclose his secret; and we do not hear that the *Great Nation* seemed inclined to comply with these demands, while in possession of that island.

This work not only offers a cure for the gout in grown gentlemen, but for the rickets in children,—for diseases in other animals,—and for every thing,—in the use of tar-water, mentioned as a new discovery. There are springs of pitch and tar in the island of Zante, which M. ST. SAUVEUR has described very minutely, with the quantity which they produce, and the manner of procuring and disposing of it: but he dwells chiefly on the medicinal power of tar, not seeming to know what a panacea tar-water was deemed in England 40 or 50 years ago.—When we reflect how many specifics have lost their efficacy, and are neglected and forgotten, it must (or should) make us cautious of hastily adopting the numerous new and infallible remedies for which there is a sudden vogue or passion. It may not only be asked at present, what is become of the virtue of tar-water—but of Moor's worm-powder—of lime-water—soap-pills—Ward's drop and pill—Hill's water-dock, tincture of valerian, pectoral balsam of honey—Buzaglao—magnetism—&c. &c.?

In speaking of the decay of the Venetian commonwealth, its commerce, and power, no notice is taken by the author of the League of Cambray, which stript it of its most valuable possessions.

possessions. A chapter in the third volume relates to the commerce of Venice with France, while she was in possession of that city and her territories; which might have been very useful to the Gallic republic, had she not transferred the chief of these possessions to Austria.

The Atlas contains a quarto map of the Greek islands,—four plates of medals relative to the antient state of these classical countries in times of their greatest glory,—portraits of the natives of several of these islands in their modern dress,—and views of the principal cities.

We entered on this work with a considerable degree of curiosity and expectation; and though we cannot say that we have been thoroughly gratified, the reader will find in it some amusement, and some information.

Dr B....y.

ART. IX. *Relation du Voyage à la Recherche de la Pérouse, &c. i. e.* Account of a Voyage in search of *la Pérouse*, undertaken by Order of the Constituent Assembly, during the Years 1791, 1792, and during the 1st and 2d Years of the French Republic. By Citizen LABILLARDIERE, Correspondent of the *ci-devant* Academy of Sciences at Paris, and one of the Naturalists sent on the Expedition. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 440 each, and Folio Atlas of Plates. Paris. 1799. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 3l. 3s. An Edition in 4to. Price 6l. 6s.

IN February 1791, the Constituent Assembly of France decreed that the King should be requested to cause one or more vessels to be equipped, for the double purpose of searching after M. *de la Pérouse*, according to documents and instructions which should be given, and of making researches relative to science and to commerce. In consequence, two ships were fitted out; and they were named *La Recherche*, and *L'Esperance*; the former carrying 113, the latter 106 men (astronomers, naturalists, and other men of science, included). The command of the expedition was given to General *Dentrecasteaux*. The ships were stored with eighteen months' provisions, and with a large stock of those articles which have been found most useful in voyages to the Pacific Ocean. The writer of the journal before us, M. LABILLARDIERE, embarked as a naturalist; and the collections of natural history which he made during the voyage were brought by the chances of war to England: but in consequence of application from the French to the British Government, they were restored, which greatly assisted the author in drawing up the present account. No one can forget the example of liberality which the French had set us in this respect.

The

The ships departed from Brest, September 28, 1791. So many were eager to embark on this expedition, that, after they were under sail, seamen who did not belong to the crews were found concealed in each ship. They were sent on shore, lest the vessels should be too much crouded: but others were discovered after they were out of sight of land, who in course were permitted to make the voyage.

As the greater part of this expedition is over beaten ground, we shall be very brief in our account, excepting where we meet with circumstances which appear to us more particularly to require notice.—The ships having stopped at Teneriffe, a large party, of which the writer formed one, went to visit the peak; and the appearances created by the clouds are thus described:

'The clouds, which gathered round the mountains beneath us, appeared blended with the waters of the ocean, and hid from our view the rest of the island. The sky above was perfectly clear. The Peak, of itself, seemed to be an island surrounded by an immense ocean. Our figures were reflected on the clouds beneath on the side opposite to the sun, and appeared decked with the finest colours of the rainbow.'

After ninety-two years had passed without any volcanic eruption in Teneriffe, a new volcano burst open on the south-west side of the Peak. The following short account of it is given, as related by the Consul of the French Republic:

'On the 21st *Prairial*, August 6th, the inhabitants of St. Croix were alarmed by noises resembling the sound of cannon at a distance. During the night, a slight shock of an earthquake was felt; and on the next morning, eruptions appeared on the S. W. of the Peak. During the first days, fifteen openings were counted: but, by the end of the month, their number was reduced to two; whence great pieces of rock were continually thrown with such force, as to preserve their original direction frequently fifteen seconds before they fell to the earth.'

An account is given of winds, currents, and the particulars of the navigation to the Cape of Good Hope, where the ships arrived on the 17th of January 1792. Gen. *Dentrecasteaux* found letters waiting for him from the Governor of the Isle of France, to communicate depositions which had been made by two commanders of merchant-ships, and which seemed to afford some clue towards discovering the fate of M. *de la Pérouse* and his companions. These depositions mention that, after the loss of the English frigate *Syrius*, on Norfolk Island, Capt. Hunter and his ship's company embarked from Botany Bay in a Dutch vessel; that, in their passage to Batavia, they were carried by currents to the eastward as far as the Admiralty Isles; that, from the easternmost of these, some canoes came near

near them, but did not venture on board; that many of the natives were dressed with pieces of European cloth; and that on two of them was distinguished the uniform of the French marine. On account of the rocks and currents, the Dutch captain did not choose to make a nearer approach to the land. —One of the depositions adds that Capt. Hunter, with whom the deponent conversed on the subject, had been informed by *M. de la Pérouse* that it was his intention to pass through the streights of St. George; and that Capt. Hunter was of opinion, that the *Boussole* and *Astrolabe* were wrecked on the Admiralty Islands. Capt. Hunter and his officers were in a ship lying at the Cape, at the time when Gen. *Dentrecasteaux* entered the bay: but they were on the point of sailing, and actually departed two hours after the French ships anchored; and unluckily without any communication having passed. So far was the matter contained in the depositions from being confirmed by any thing which had fallen from Capt. Hunter at the Cape, that, on the contrary, he had denied all knowlege of the facts alleged in the reports circulated by the frigate which brought the dispatches from the Isle of France. The depositions, however, determined the French commander to visit the Admiralty Isles as early as he possibly could.

The writer made several excursions to the mountains and plantations near the Cape town, an account of which he relates at length.

Having sailed from the Cape, on the 28th of March they were near the island of Amsterdam, which the author calls the island of St. Paul; following, he says, the example of Capt. Cook in calling the northernmost of the two islands St. Paul. We have examined the charts of Capt. Cook's voyages, in which we find the islands named as by *Valming*, the original discoverer.

On the passage from the Cape to Van Diemen's Land, M. Labillardiere remarks that it is usual, on leaving the Cape, to steer towards the south, with the view of obtaining westerly winds. The route, he observes, is lengthened: but, at sea, it is not always by following the shortest road that we arrive the soonest. The writer's seamanship is not at all times correct; and in this instance he appears not to have known, or not to have recollected, that the shortest distance is formed by sailing on an arch of a great circle. Indeed, we should not expect much nautical knowlege from a naturalist who is professedly no seaman: but we observe that he has frequently introduced more of the subject than was necessary to the narrative. He says; 'My journal, kept with care during the whole course of the voyage, contained many nautical observations, but in

this particular would have been very incomplete without the assistance furnished me by one of the best officers of the expedition, *Citizen Legrand.*' After this, it is certainly fair to place unnecessary or mistaken seamanship to the account of the author's own observations.

At the island of Amsterdam, the forests were observed to be in flames in several places, but whether from subterranean fire, or effected by the hands of men, the author could not determine. At Van Diemen's Land, through a mistake of one of the officers, the General being then ill, they anchored in Storm Bay, instead of Adventure Bay. This, however, was a fortunate circumstance, since it led to the discovery of a new navigable passage to the N. E.; the land forming the east side of Storm Bay, and including Adventure Bay, being separate from the rest of Van Diemen's Land. The ships sailed through this strait, which was named after the commander, and came into an open sea to the north of Adventure Bay. During the latter part of their stay at Van Diemen's Land, they met several of the natives, who were friendly and well disposed;—and they shot some black swans, of which bird the author gives the following description:

'It is rather larger than the European swan, and as finely formed. Its colour is a glossy black, but with six large white feathers in each wing. The beak of the upper mandible is red, with a transverse whitish streak near the extremity. A swelling was observed in the lower part, forming two protuberances, but which in the female is scarcely perceptible. The inferior mandible is red towards the edges, and white underneath. The feet are of a dark grey.'

They left Van Diemen's Land on the 29th of May, and on June 16th they saw the eastern part of New Caledonia. They coasted the whole length of the S. W. side of this island without obtaining anchorage, or the least intercourse with the natives; and, in the same manner, several groupes of small islands were passed. At length, July 15th, being near the island of Bouka, some canoes came towards them, but none ventured on board the General's ship. With *L'Espérance* they were less reserved. One canoe contained forty people, sixteen of whom were employed in paddling; the rest were armed with bows and arrows, and regularly stationed in different parts of the canoe. These Indians are described as having been greatly delighted with the music of a violin. It does not appear that any inquiries, by signs or otherwise, were here made respecting the principal object of the voyage.—The ships passed through the strait formed by the coasts of New Ireland and New Britain; and on the 28th July, they were in sight of the Admiralty Islands, the proposed grand point of research. *M. Dentrecas-*

teaux now sent an officer on board *l'Espérance*, to consult with her Captain on the best method of prosecuting their inquiries at these islands. We will not suppose that this was the first consultation which took place on this subject; yet here we must remark that, with one specific object in view, (for subjects of philosophy and science could only be considered as incidental, or at most as secondary,) no regular plan of inquiry appears to have been formed, nor to have been deemed previously necessary for the attainment of that end. The instructions under which *M. Dentrecasteaux* sailed are not in the account before us; but the depositions received at the Cape of Good Hope appear to have determined his route to the Admiralty Islands; and the advanced season of the year made him prefer going to the south of New Holland. Proceeding in this direction, they might, without any loss of time, have called at the English settlement in *New South Wales* for the chance of obtaining some intelligence. The latest information respecting *M. de la Pérouse*'s ships, which has ever been gained, was their sailing from that place; and the plan which he then proposed to pursue, as appears by his letters to France, was to visit New Caledonia and the *Terre des Arsacides;* to pass between New Holland and New Guinea, and to visit the Gulf of Carpentaria. After New Holland, therefore, New Caledonia ought to have been the first place of inquiry, and should not have been so easily passed for the sake of a plan which might have been better executed afterward. If M. *Dentrecasteaux* had stopped at New Caledonia, and had engaged some of the natives to accompany him not only thence, but from other places as he proceeded, he would have been provided with interpreters by whose assistance his inquiries might have been directed with advantage; and it is probable that, from some of the interpreters themselves, as they became better understood, important intelligence might have been obtained. These people could have been afterward returned to their respective islands; which would have required no more in the original plan, than what Gen. *Dentrecasteaux*, as it happened, thought it necessary to perform, *i. e.* the going round New Holland a second time; and the additional prospect of success would surely have been a sufficient compensation for the trouble.

July 29th, the ships approached the easternmost of the Admiralty Islands, which appeared well cultivated and inclosed. A number of canoes were on the beach, but the natives shewed no disposition to launch them. At half past one in the afternoon, being to leeward of the island, which

was of too small extent to afford much shelter, a boat was sent from each ship.

'Being arrived within a hundred yards of the shore, no bottom was found with thirty-five fathoms of line. A great number of the natives came down to the water-side, and by gestures invited us to land: but the reefs were an obstacle not to be surmounted. The islanders threw us some cocoa-nuts, and appeared pleased and astonished in seeing with what facility they were opened with a hatchet. A savage, distinguished from the rest by ornaments of little shells, appeared likewise to possess great authority. He ordered a native to swim to the boats with cocoa nuts. The fear of approaching strangers, of whose intentions he was ignorant, made him hesitate: but the chief, doubtless not much accustomed to have his commands disputed, gave him little time for reflection; several blows with a stick, which he himself applied, closely followed his orders, and he was obeyed without farther delay. We gave to this savage, for consolation, some scraps of red cloth, some nails, and a knife, which he received with great joy. On his return, every one appeared desirous of obtaining a share of our presents. Canoes were immediately launched, other natives swam off to us, and in a short time we had a great concourse round our boats.'—'At first they scrupled to take open knives from us, but their suspicions soon vanished, and they were glad to receive them any way. In exchange for our things, they gave us lances, bracelets, &c.'

At four o'clock, the boats, according to the orders which had been given, returned to the ships. The natives seemed sorry for their departure, and renewed the invitations for them to land. The women, who till then had kept among the trees at a distance, likewise advanced, and by signs joined in inviting them.—This little island, the author says, is nearly of a circular form, and its length is about two miles and a half: it is well peopled.

On the next day, the ships were distant from the land, and no intercourse appears to have taken place: but early on the following morning, (the 31st,) they were within three *kilomètres* (about half a league) of the central islands. One of these is described to be mountainous and of some extent. They several times tried for soundings, but found no bottom with eighty fathoms of line. Many canoes came from the land; and, after much invitation, and several presents being given to them by means of a plank, they ventured to come close to the ships. They were very eager and honest in making exchanges. They preferred iron to every other substance that was offered them.

At half past ten in the forenoon, the ships made sail to the westward; and on the next day they passed the westernmost of this 'little Archipelago.' 'We did not see,' says the author,

author, 'in the possession of these islanders, any effects which had belonged to Europeans.'

This is the sum of what we find in the narrative respecting the search made at the Admiralty Islands, for *M. de la Pérouse* and his unfortunate companions. European navigators have frequently, in a few days' continuance of friendly intercourse, acquired so much of the language of islanders in these seas, with which they were before wholly unacquainted, as to render communication very practicable: but, so unprovided as were these navigators with the means of making inquiry, what information, unless accident had presented any, could have been obtained in a visit so transient? From the appearance of the Admiralty Islands, as represented in one of the Plates, (No. 2.) we should judge that the probability was in favour of their affording anchorage. No bottom being found by sounding in the ship, at the distance of half a league, is not a circumstance unfavourable to that supposition: because there are very few of the islands in the South Seas, at which soundings can be obtained so far from the shore. We do not find in the narrative any reason for believing that boats were sent in search of anchorage; nor at all from the ships, except at the small island, the easternmost of the groupe, as already related.

The ships passed other small islands, and canoes came near them, but nothing interesting occurred. They then sailed along the north coast of New Guinea, and on September 6th anchored at Amboyna. Here they were received in a friendly manner, and with less formality than it had been customary for the Dutch to observe towards the ships of other nations at their settlements in these seas.

Two translations of this work are advertized. Capt. B....y.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. X. *Le Dix-huit Brumaire, &c. i. e.* The Eighteenth of Brumaire, (8th November, 1799;) or, An Account of the Events which produced the Transactions of that Day. To which are added, Anecdotes concerning the principal Persons then in Place, &c. 8vo. pp. 431. Paris, 1799. London, imported by De Boffe. Price 6s.

THE writer who undertakes to influence the public mind, respecting the judgment which it forms of so important a measure as a revolution, overlooks the arts of authorship, and claims to be judged by the talents which he displays, the views which he unfolds, and the information which he communicates; above all, by his success in his object. If he secures this last point, he will little regard any criticisms on his work as a literary performance; nay, he may follow Mr. Burke's example, and con-

vert any attack of this kind into an argument in favour of the justice of his cause; if, even when exhibited not to the best advantage, it is able to gain the general suffrage. A claim of this sort the present author may fairly set up; and it may seem to furnish a valid plea to our jurisdiction, and to remove the cause from our tribunal: but, perhaps, the public will be better pleased if, like other courts, we make a rule which shall extend our jurisdiction so as to embrace a case that does not seem, in strictness, to come within it.

The author states the object of his work to be, 'to demonstrate the indispensible necessity, and the incalculable value, of the 18th Brumaire (8th November 1799 *); to investigate the remote causes which prepared it, and to treat of them at some length.' These events are too important in themselves, and seem too big with consequences, not to excite in every inquisitive mind a very lively interest; an interest which is still farther heightened by the stress laid on them in a late very weighty discussion in the British Legislature.

The writer founds his arguments in favour of this revolution, on the vices of the constitution of the year 3, on the practical mischiefs to which these actually gave rise, and on the malversations of those who were entrusted with the administration of the government under it. The constitution is said to have been vicious in four grand points.

1st, The qualifications for the elective franchise were too low and vague. This occasioned the base of the republic to be placed on a moving and volcanic foundation. The consequence, we are told, was that, for the whole hierarchy of public employments, the selections had been the worst and most improper, in some districts most disgraceful, in others horrible; hence bad laws, and bad measures of administration; and hence the proprietors, the strength and real support of the state, were reduced to the condition of helots, vegetating under a sort of proscription, or civil interdict.

'France (he says) can only subsist under any form of government, as far as that government protects with all its force, and guarantees with all its power, *the right of property*; as far as it encompasses it with favour, partiality, encouragement, and religious inviolability.'

The second vice lay in the annual election of one-third of the deputies, and other public functionaries. This event was always preceded by six months of cabal and intrigue. It was impossible that any body politic, however sound and robust, could stand a political fever of this length in each year. English advocates for annual parliaments should read what a republican writer says on this head.

* The formation of the Consulate under *Bonaparte*.

3dly,

3dly, The number of legislators in the Council of Five Hundred was too great; hence an endless multiplicity of laws, which were every day proposed with urgency, though there existed already between 25 and 30,000 laws promulgated in the same way. Their sessions had no break; hence no opportunity was given for heats to subside, and for calm to restore itself: but, on the contrary, passions grew more warm, and the factions more violent.

4thly, The Executive Government was faulty on two accounts. *First*, It wanted an union of relations with the Legislative Authority. Here the author is very subtile, if not mysterious. He distinguishes between the powers and the depositaries of them. The framers of the constitution, according to him, should have applied the principle of division not to the powers but to the depositaries. He would have the powers subsist not distinctly, but in intimate combination; ingrained, as it were, one in the other. *Secondly*, The Executive was faulty as it was collective, and annually, in part, rotatory. Hence its resolutions were not sufficiently expeditious, its action had not the necessary celerity, and its proceedings wanted uniformity. The number of shares in the supreme authority gave life to a greater mass of faction; and the number of functionaries deprived the qualifications for single candidates of their due weight.—The author pleads the cause of executive unity: but his chief magistrate is elective, holds his place for a time, and, in certain cases, is subject to be deprived of it before the legal period of quitting it arrives.

Severe as are the writer's animadversions on the constitution itself, yet, when speaking of its framers, he displays candor which does him credit. He shews that its faults did not originate with them, but were those of the times and circumstances. 'They made,' he says, 'great strides towards a regenerating and conservatory system, for which they have strong claims to public gratitude.'

The author admits also, that the first days of this constitution were bright and promising; that the difficult and delicate business of the paper-money was managed with address; and that energy was shewn in the suppression of the conspiracies. He says that the tigers of 1793 were muzzled; that the republic had ceased to be their prey; and that authority lay chiefly in the hands of wise, moderate, and upright men. The revolution seemed to have reached its end, and to lose itself in the results to which it had given rise. Wounds were healing. Agriculture began to resume its productive activity. Confidence brought specie to light, and gave it a circulation which animated the labours of industry, and the speculations of

commerce. The past, which had been so productive of misfortunes, was vanishing fast from recollection; and the future, rich in benefits, seemed already present. It was, for every citizen, for the whole social body, a new existence.—Thus auspiciously, says the author, dawned this short-lived government. How came the political horizon to darken? Whence arose the storms and convulsions which so soon brought on dissolution? We shall give an abstract of the author's answer to these queries.

'While thus prosperous, we were on the eve of the first elections. These, however, passed off in the best manner; they were no where controuled; they were universally conducted with decency; and the impression which they made on the public mind was favourable to national prosperity. One circumstance of great moment must not be overlooked. Not one of the partisans of the late tyrannny was returned to the councils, or elected to any place of trust; so general was the abhorrence with which it was recollected:—nay, in some districts, this sentiment was carried to the length of occasioning avowed royalists to be elected, men in league with the chiefs of the fugitives, men who had themselves emigrated. These returns, though few in number, excited alarm, which would have been greater, had not a hope been entertained that, as there were in the legislature several partisans of the anarchical factions, these extreme parties would balance each other. The royalist deputies forwarded their plans under the cover of specious measures; and the laws which gave offence were such as exceeded a good object rather than aimed at a bad one, were more unreasonable than materially faulty.—It was not yet too late to prevent a crisis; the constitutionalists, who were by far the majority, had only to clear their ranks of those few disguised royalists by whom they were misled; and who, when separated, would have been a nullity, marked either as traitors, or forced to act within the limits of the popular trust which they had undertaken. Had the constituonalists acted thus, their own sense of things, would have suggested measures which would have consolidated the government, restored harmony between the authorities, and tranquilized the public mind. This is what would have happened, but for the obstacles which the jacobin faction threw in the way; its partisans had seen the error into which the unsuspecting majority had been led for a moment by artifice; and they resolved to profit by it. Did they see a disposition to return to right counsels? They took care to check it, and to throw every impediment in its way. Now was the moment to regain their lost power. Another election was at hand, which would have proved a death-blow to their hopes. They resolved, before a period so fatal to their interests arrived, to change entirely the state of affairs, and to give a complete turn to the public mind. They alleged an imaginary conspiracy, in order to form and execute a real one. A minority in the councils, and three directors, took the lead in the plot: but the directors had particular views; and they laboured to turn the revolution to their own advantage exclusively, and to get into their own hands the whole

whole power of the state; in which, ultimately, they fully succeeded.'

Such is the substance of this author's account of the 18th Fructidor (4th September 1798). He is explicit in declaring that the defeated party, with a few exceptions of no signification, had no ill intentions, and that the aggressors were the sole conspirators; he cannot believe that *Carnot*, who had rendered such services to the republic, could possibly have engaged in a conspiracy to restore a king who never could have forgiven him.

The author sketches the effects of this horrible day with a bold and glowing pencil. The constitution was a wreck, and there was no national representation; deputies there were, but the guarantee was gone,—the first magistracy was fallen with the constitution by which it existed; five men there were, not invested, but armed with the whole power, exercising a tyranny as jealous and degrading as ever oppressed a people. All that distinguishes social life disappeared instantaneously from the soil of France, and nothing was to be seen but the hideous and poisonous fruit of lawless domination. The caverns of the Jacobins were opened, and the anarchical code of 1793 was exhumed, and recommended to the acceptation of the people. This not suiting the Pentarchs, the clubs were once more suppressed: but this did not prevent the elections from being every where in favour of the disorganizers. The directors of the 22d Floreal, (11th May,) however, were the same as those of the 18th Fructidor, (4th September;) and they shut the doors of the councils against such deputies as they disliked. This stretch of power was popular, because the Jacobins were the immediate sufferers.—According to our author, the 18th Fructidor was 'the assassination of the constitution; the 22d Floréal, an outrage done to a dead carcase.'

The malversations of the Directory wrought its downfall.

'Acting under its instructions, (says the writer,) we saw the French plenipotentiaries at Rastadt canvassing the great interests of society and humanity, as shuffling advocates discuss the petty claims of individuals. While the congress sat, the new coalition was formed. The cabinet of the Luxemburgh, the conduct of which contributed most evidently to provoke it, took no steps of prevention, and were wholly unprepared to resist. The tragedy, which closed the congress, had scarcely taken place, before the Austrians and Russians menaced the French frontier. A weak and profligate administration had squandered away all our means; we had no arms, artillery, provisions, nor money. A few decades hurled the republic from a position the most brilliant, to the most imminent danger.'

The Jacobins, who had been discomfited on the 22d Floréal, saw their opportunity; they put themselves in action; and they

they were joined by men of a better cast, whom the incapacity and the crimes of the government had roused. The 30th of Prairial (18th June) was brought about, and three directors were displaced. The anarchists were in too much credit not to have the clubs revived; and soon did the Manege at Paris, and similar societies in the departments, display the fury characteristic of this monstrous sect; its partizans on this occasion resembled, says our author, 'tigers who perceive their prey; cannibals, tumultuously dancing around their palpitating victims.' These dens were again shut up, but the party was still busy; the demand for the blood of the ex-directors, and the motion to declare the country in danger, proceeded from this restless quarter, and were intended as introductory to a revolutionary regimen.—If this writer may be credited, the Jacobin party, on the very eve of the 18th Brumaire, were arranging a conspiracy; the object of which was to subvert the constitution, to form the two councils into one assembly, to put to death *Sieyes* and *Ducos*, to declare *Bonaparte* an outlaw, and to guillotine the inspectors of the two councils.

The author arraigns the conduct of the Directory, in relation to allied and neutral powers. The seizure of the ships of America, and the attempt to sow dissension among its citizens, lost France the friendship of that country. The Danish and even the Prussian flags experienced endless insults; and a masterpiece of iniquity and impolicy was exhibited in its conduct towards Holland. It was not, says the author, sufficient for the Batavian republic to have assisted us in our conquest of it, to have adopted our form of government, to have given us immense sums of money, to have assigned to us part of its territory, to have subsisted a large French army, and to have broken with England on our account, by which she lost her commerce, without which Holland is no longer itself;—it was not sufficient for the Batavians to have submitted, for the last two years, to a contribution amounting to one-half of their personal revenues, and one-tenth of the rents of their lands:—they must brook the indignity of having French corsairs seize their vessels in their very harbours, under the cannon of their forts. Did they send out succours to their distant colonies, to prevent them from falling into the hands of England? The French ships seized them, and carried them into French ports, where they were condemned as lawful prizes. The judges of the infamous tribunals had, very often, an immediate interest in the adventure which came to be tried before them.

After these and similar details, the writer adds:

'Thus have we shewn, in the vices of the constitution of the year 3, the primary, necessary, and certain causes of its more or less speedy

speedy dissolution. We have followed the gradual developement of these causes in the different crises which they produced, the epochs of the 18th Fructidor, the 22d Floréal, and the 30th Prairial. These catastrophes have conducted us through mournful wrecks, vast ruins, criminal practices, cruel oppressions, great public disasters, and numerous domestic misfortunes, to the 18th Brumaire, when the tables of this impotent constitution, so often profaned, were solemnly broken. It is for this day to raise us from ignominious debasement, and to realize to us liberty and the republic; which, hitherto, have been only the particular affairs and the exclusive privilege of an ambitious and domineering *coterie*, productive to the nation only of losses, oppressions, misfortunes, and fetters. If the results of this day, which public opinion welcomed with such enthusiasm and gratitude, fail of their object, we are undone; it will be our inevitable destiny to perish amid the anguish and tortures of the execrable *regime* of 1793; or to return, through all the horrors of civil war, to the point whence we set out in 1789, and to fall again under the monarchical system: no longer confiding, moderate, and gentle as formerly, but absolute, despotic, alive to all the dark suggestions of distrust, seeing none but turbulent slaves to be repressed by terror, and criminals to be punished with death.

'In order that the new social compact may take deep root in our manners, in our habitudes, in our minds, in the whole of our moral and civil existence; in order that it may open to the republic the career of high destinies to which she is called; it is indispensible that it be crowned by a solid and glorious peace. It is peace that will establish tranquillity in our interior, and that will restore the empire of the laws. It is by shewing to foreign powers the force and solidity of our social compact, under the auspices of which the republic forms itself, that we shall induce them, from a regard to their own necessities, their own quiet, and their own preservation, to accept of peace; and it is by peace that this saviour-compact will strengthen itself, acquire the consistency of which it is susceptible, and secure to the people of France all the advantages and benefits which the 18th Brumaire has promised them.'

We shall close our review of this interesting work with the following observations.

If we admit the defects of the discarded constitution to be as fatal as this author asserts, and that he has not exaggerated the malversations of the successive governments; if we grant to him that the constitution existed only in name, that it had ceased to be a legitimate government, that the usurpation was the least crime of the usurpers, that their weakness and profligacy passed all bearing, and that the whole order of things called aloud for change; all this does not affect the nature of the recent revolution; it does not reconcile us to the encampments of St. Cloud, and the feats of the Orangerie. Civil authorities, and representative bodies, (though such more in name than in reality,) yielding to the bayonet, and dispersed by the soldiery, are scenes to be viewed with abhorrence. It is not, however,

for

for us to judge of the situation of France, nor to determine what its necessities required: but we believe that, if ever there was a country in which the public well-fare demanded the suspension of popular rights; and if ever there was a country incapable of any other than a military government; that country was France at the period of which we are speaking. Be this as it may, it cannot be denied that, out of the evil, good has proceeded. If political liberty has disappeared, civil liberty has gained; if the forms of freedom have melted away, the struggles of faction are also at an end; whole bodies are not persecuted, and individuals are not oppressed; the sway of *brigands* does not exist, but men of character and ability fill places of power. Revolutionary proselytism, bigotry, and narrowness, have made way for courtesy, civility, and gallant manners; these have regained their antient residence. The decorations and ornaments, which do not less add life than they lend attractions to society, are again justly appreciated, and restored to proper vogue. Protection and favour are extended to science and letters. The mad ambition of disturbing thrones is at least disavowed, and the love of peace is professed.—For these ameliorations, France and Europe are beholden to the usurpation. We will hope that the same liberal and beneficent spirit, which pervades the internal administration, will display itself in the conduct of external relations; that the chief consul will not belie the professions which he has solemnly made in the face of Europe; and that he will prefer, to the mad attempt of devastating the world, the solid glory of repairing the million-mischiefs which his country has suffered; of reviving industry, agriculture, commerce, arts, manners, religion, and social life; thus paving a sure way for that general pacification for which humanity so strongly pleads, and for that permanent repose which Europe so much requires. Jo..s.

ART. XI. *Annales de Chimie,—i. e.* Chemical Annals, No. 95 to 98. 8vo. Paris, 1800.

THESE numbers do not appear to us calculated to gratify the lovers of chemical science, equally with the generality of the preceding. One of the most interesting papers which they contain is the continuation of the *Analysis of Human Urine*, by M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.—This continuation is confined to the *urée*; of which, azote is the predominant ingredient. Hence it effervesces so long with nitric acid, and furnishes so much ammonia in every mode of decomposition: for, though it contains less hydrogen than many other animal substances, there is more than enough for the formation of this product. The surplus hydrogen is disengaged in combination

tion with a little carbon. This happens in preference to the generation of an oily compound, because the carbon finds oxygen enough to oxygenate it.—All the products, in consequence of the treatment of the *urée* by the principal reagents, are understood from a knowlege of its composition. At the moment when the bond, which ties together its elements, is relaxed, it has a disposition to pass to the state of carbonate of ammonia.

In the conclusion of the paper, some views respecting the application of this analysis to physiology, and the arts, are presented. Although the former cannot be prosecuted to the extent which they merit, except in an appropriate institution, a few insulated observations (say the authors) may teach us what advances the insight already acquired may enable us to make in the path of truth.

When the urine continues too long in the bladder, it acquires an ammoniacal acrimony, which shews itself by a strong smell, and deep brown colour. The horrid pain, sometimes experienced in cases of retention, is here imputed to the formation of ammonia: but this seems questionable.

In old age, when the bladder is deprived (sometimes to a fatal degree) of its irritability and sensibility, the urine becomes ammoniacal, and is discharged turbid and ropy from the mucus which the generated ammonia separates from the acid which, in the healthy state, holds it dissolved. 'The same phænomenon (say the writers) sometimes takes place from the retention consequent on a calculus in the bladder. In these circumstances, the patients, after extreme pain, void a thick glary urine; in which the chemical agency of the generated ammonia, and the putrid alteration of the *urée* in the bladder, cannot be mistaken.' This is ingenious, and deserving of attention: but we cannot overlook the probable secretion of an increased quantity of morbid mucus, in consequence of the stimulation of the bladder.

Process for the Extraction of the Sugar of Beet. By M. ACHARD.—The feasibility of the scheme for obtaining sugar in this way, of which the public has lately heard so much, cannot be ascertained from any facts in the numbers before us. We shall therefore wait for more decisive documents. The first reports, probably, have been much exaggerated.

No. 96. *Experiments on the Alloys of Lead and Tin.* By M. VAUQUELIN.—The result of these experiments, made to determine in what proportion lead may be employed with safety to health, may not be so interesting where pewter is so little employed as it is now in England. Nevertheless, we deem the following facts of sufficient importance to be transcribed. Wine appears to have a stronger action on

lead than vinegar; since within the same time, at the same temperature, and in equal proportion, vinegar did not present very sensible traces of the presence of lead; whereas wines, except where the proportion did not exceed one twentieth, presented slight appearances of this metal.—Tin-vessels separate the colouring matter of wine in the state of a red crimson lake; for this matter, burned in a platina-crucible, left a white residuum, which the author readily discovered to be oxyd of tin. This proves that the colouring part of wine has more affinity with oxyd of tin, than with the other principles of this liquor. It is not, then, the interest of retailers of wine to let it stand too long in tin-vessels, if they would preserve its colour. For the above reason, without doubt, wine-measures of tin are quickly covered with a coloured coating.

M. VAUQUELIN proposes a simple method of ascertaining whether lead, in an alloy, will be attacked by vinegar or wine. It is by putting on the surface a drop of either of these liquors. If at the bottom and on the sides of these drops any white flocculi are formed, it is a proof that the lead does not exist in over-proportion. If, on the contrary, white flocculi, soluble on agitation, do appear, it is a certain sign that the lead will be dissolved.

Report of a Memoir of M. THENART, *concerning the different States of Oxyd of Antimony, and its Combinations with sulphurated Hydrogen.* By M. GUYTON.—M. THENART finds antimony susceptible of six different states of oxydation; and he offers some remarks which are of importance in the preparation of antimonial medicines. The full paper, we understand, is to appear in the Memoirs of the National Institute.

On a Salt from the Manufacture of M. Payen. By M. VAUQUELIN.—The medicinal properties of this salt having excited some attention, it was examined by M. VAUQUELIN, and was found to be sulfite of soda and sulphur, or *sulphurated sulfite of soda.* It is formed whenever sulphur, united with hydrogen, is presented to the sulphureous acid.

On artificial Cinnabar. By M. MARTIN.—It is here prescribed to melt one part of sulphur in an unglazed pot; to pour (in the way of a shower) two parts of pure mercury on the melted sulphur; and to agitate rapidly with a clay tube. The mass is next to be triturated, and impregnated with a sufficient quantity of nitric acid; and then exposed in a sand-bath to a gentle heat. By sublimation, a fine red chrystalized cinnabar is obtained.

Observations on the Preparation of Plaisters. By M. DEYEUX.—It is pleasing to see the votaries of a science so dignified as chemistry, extending their regard to objects apparently so trivial as that which is considered in the present paper.

Few

Few persons, perhaps, would think it susceptible of remarks so curious as are here offered to the reader. For particulars, however, we must refer to the work.

On Oxygen as a Remedy. By M. GRILLE.—It is here said that persons affected by the itch are cured by working in the mine of manganese at Maçon; and M. GRILLE asserts that an ointment of 6 parts of oxyd of manganese and 16 of oxygen cured this disease sooner than Pringle's ointment. He observes that the usual remedies were at the same time administered. The attempt to account for the effect of working in the mine, by help of the diffusion of oxygen in vapour, appears to us injudicious. If the fact be true, it is more likely to be owing to the fine dust of the ore.

Memoir on the Ammoniure of Cobalt, or, on an Acid contained in the grey Oxyd of this Metal usually denominated Saffre. By L. BRUGNATELLI.—This author describes a new acid which he denominates *cobaltic acid*, though he confessess that its base remains to be ascertained. It is procured, among other methods, simply by boiling saffre in water, and it exists therefore ready formed in that substance.

Report by M. FOURCROY *concerning the artificial Mineral Waters prepared by* M. PAUL.—The list of waters mentioned in this paper amounts to *eleven;* and, which is more surprizing, some of the liquids are said to contain five and six times their bulk of carbonic acid. There is an oxygenated water which contains half its volume of oxygen gas! an hydrogenated which contains a third! and an hydro-carbonated which contains two thirds! The impregnation is effected by strong compression: but the principal part of the machinery is kept secret. In the proportions of impregnating gases, however, there is reason for supposing that the desire of the manufacturer to extol his goods has produced some exaggeration: since the reporters could not extricate the quantity of gas specified. In the case of the oxygenated water, they could not expel *one third* of the bulk of the oxygen gas with which it was stated by M. PAUL to be impregnated.—Notwithstanding the exaggeration, however, (if such it be,) enough is here brought forwards to shew that prodigious improvements in this branch are practicable; and we hope that our chemists and mechanics will turn their attention to it.

We have left unnoticed several papers which appeared to us to be wholly unimportant, or the nature of which rendered them uninteresting to the English reader.—Nos. 99 and 100 are just come to our hands: but, as we have not time to report their contents, we must reserve them for our next Appendix.

Bed...s.

ART.

ART. XII. *Nouvelle Methode d'Enseignement, &c. i. e.* A new Method of Instruction for early Childhood. By Madame DE GENLIS. 12mo. pp. 426. Hamburgh, &c. 1799. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 5s.

THOUGH designed for a younger class of pupils than the former works of Madame DE GENLIS, this volume is said to be, 'the fruit of longer meditation and of more reflection than any that she has before written on the same subject.' The plan is thus explained:

'I have here composed dialogues, a tale, some maxims, and little pieces for children. I have written them with simplicity, always sacrificing imagination to morality, and elegance of style to clearness; which necessarily occasions a continual repetition of words. With regard to detached maxims, I have not endeavoured to offer any that are either new or brilliant: my wish has been to trace the first rudiments of morality; and that these seeds, so precious, should result from the dialogues, &c. to the end that they should make the deeper impression.'

Notwithstanding the simplicity of the language, Madame DE GENLIS could not avoid introducing some words which may be beyond the comprehension of a child of six years old; and she has therefore subjoined a list of those which she thought might require explanation, and has given definitions of them.

Les jeux d'enfans, introduced in the last dialogue, are well devised, by making a play of the necessary employments of common life which children may have hereafter to perform; thus teaching them to rehearse their part well, before they are required to act. It is proposed to do this without loss to other instruction, by contriving that it shall form a part of their recreation.

A new method is recommended for teaching young people to design and to paint; which is by instructing and forming their *judgment*, before they enter on the *practical* part.

Madame DE GENLIS is of opinion that any child, well educated and perfectly managed from its earliest infancy, would appear a prodigy at twenty years of age. The difficulty consists in making the experiment: but, in the endeavour, much good would probably be produced.

From this brief description, and from the known abilities of Madame DE GENLIS, the reader will perhaps be able to appreciate the utility of this work. An English translation of it has appeared; as also of another recent production of this lady's pen, entitled *La Bruyere the Less:* of which we shall shortly give some account.

Capt. B....y.

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